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"Passing the Buck"

Lawrence A. Appley, *President,*
American Management Association

In one of the popular national magazines there appeared recently a cartoon that showed an exasperated business executive blasting two quaking subordinates: "I don't want you to come to me with problems! Bring me solutions!" The point of the cartoon seemed to be that it could be considered humorous for the tycoon to demand that his underlings supply solutions—the implication being, what did he think *he* was paid to do?

It is doubtful whether the cartoonist appreciated the real significance of the situation he so comically depicted. If he meant it to be funny (and there appeared to be no other intent) then he certainly showed little first-hand experience with executive responsibility or the principles it involves.

The fact is that the tycoon was making a perfectly legitimate demand. His job is to see that solutions are found to problems, but not to provide solutions to all problems. He must consciously and constantly fight the tendency of others to "pass the buck" up the line of command.

Nothing Ventured, Nothing Blamed

It is a perfectuly natural and human tendency to let the boss (at any organizational level) take the responsibility for finding the answers. This stems first from the false assumption that the boss is always right and second from the realization that if the answer is wrong, someone else takes the rap. Not uncommonly many who cry out for responsibility and authority will not take it when it is delegated to them.

How many times have you become irritated in a discussion with a subordinate because it does not seem to be getting anywhere and there appears to be no way to bring it to a conclusion? The next time this occurs, see if something like this has happened: The subordinate has presented a problem, set forth all the facts in meticulous detail, and made it seem serious enough to justify his having brought it to you. Then he stops and looks at you with a question mark all over his face, or perhaps he comes right out and asks you what he should do.

Positions Reversed

The natural tendency is for you to suggest some possible courses of action and for the subordinate to point out why this one or that one is not so good. Finally, under pressure of time or other matters that are demanding your attention, you say, "Well, let me sleep on it," or "Let me think about it and I'll call you." Now *you* have the problem and he can relax until he hears from you.

Do you see what has happened? The subordinate, probably unintentionally, reversed positions with you. He pitched the ball to you and then sat in judgment on how well you handled it. If he does that often enough, or if enough of your subordinates do it, you have all the problems and the organization is waiting for your solutions. You also have yourself in training for ulcers.

Decisions have to be made and made at the proper time if an organization is to be dynamic and progressive. Decisions must be made, however, at a level as near as possible to the point where they have to be put into effect. If, for good reasons, a decision must be checked at a higher level, the higher level should sit in judgment of the recommendation—but should not initiate it. If the recommendation is not acceptable, let the *subordinate* "sleep on it" and come back with a better one.

It is a wise executive who is able to train his subordinates to think for themselves and find solutions for their own problems. And fortunate is the man who has such a superior, for that quality of management means progress for the organization and personal growth and satisfaction for the individuals concerned.

Passing the Buck Back

An easy way to pass the buck back, when someone working for you requests a solution to his problem, is to ask, "What do you think?" Another way is to have a fixed policy that no one is to present a problem to you without a recommended solution.

It is quite possible that an individual who refuses to come up with a recommendation, or who cannot, lacks the maturity required for acceptance of responsibility. He probably lacks confidence in himself and his own judgment and is unwilling to "stick his neck out." If so, this should be noted and every attempt made

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New Horizons in Personnel Management . . . . . GEORGE M. MOORE

I AM HONORED by your invitation to speak at this meeting of the Eastern Regional Conference of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada.

I am privileged to bring you greetings from our great President Dwight D. Eisenhower, who has asked me to say that he hopes your meeting here will be pleasant and profitable. Also, the Chairman of the Civil Service Commission, Philip Young, and my associate Commissioner Frederick Lawton, have asked me to convey to you their very best wishes for a successful conference.

The Civil Service Assembly is one of the oldest organizations dedicated to the development of interest in sound public personnel administration based upon the principles of the merit system.

For many years I have watched the growth of your fine organization. Your members, who include several thousand of the top administrators and personnel officials in Federal, State, and local governments, both here and in Canada, have made substantial contributions to the progress of personnel management. This experience of meeting with you in my capacity as a new member of the Civil Service Commission will be most enjoyable and profitable for me. It is my earnest hope that the United States Civil Service Commission, which has been a member of the Assembly since 1906, can be more helpful in our joint endeavor during the coming years.

As our good neighbors from Canada know, on January 20 a new administration assumed the leadership of the Government of the United States. The problems which immediately beset the newly selected heads of the departments and agencies were replete with dire implications relating to the Federal civil service. I am happy to report that our President has stated that "One of the firm purposes of this administration is to strengthen the career service so that it may command the esteem of the whole Nation." Also, President Eisenhower said, "It is essential in the highest public interest that the privileges accorded conscientious civil servants be guarded by a strong merit system." It is to this cause that I am devoted, and I assure you that my colleagues, Chairman Philip Young, and Commissioner Frederick Lawton, believe that under the leadership of President Eisenhower we can produce the best. strongest, and most effective civil service in the history of our country.

ALREADY, during the first four months of this administration, positive action has been taken to develop a better civil service. The measures which have been adopted are responsive to the mandate of the American people. They are designed to make our Government more efficient and effective so it may assume its proper leadership role in the world.

Our administration inherited approximately 310,000 positions which were excepted from the competitive civil service. Of these, approximately 96,000 (60,000 in the United States and 36,000 abroad) pay salaries above $4,200 annually. In former years, in thousands of instances political considerations governed the appointment of persons to these positions.

In order to strengthen the civil service, the President has instructed the Civil Service Commission to re-examine this matter so that these positions may be re-evaluated and allocated to the excepted or competitive service, wherever they properly belong. The Civil Service rules and regulations have been improved by a clearer definition of what constitutes a policy-determining or confidential position. Proce-

• GEORGE M. MOORE is a member of the United States Civil Service Commission. This address was presented by Mr. Moore at the meeting of the Eastern Regional Conference of the Civil Service Assembly at Boston, May 14, 1953.

dures have been adopted for converting this type of position into the excepted category so that the heads of the departments and agencies may have the means by which to carry out the purposes and policies of the new administration.

Based upon recommendations by the departments and agencies with the approval of the Civil Service Commission, the excepted category will then include in one schedule, Schedule C, all of the policy-determining and confidential positions in our Government. Positions other than those of a confidential or policy-determining character, for which it is either not practicable to examine or to hold a competitive examination, are to be placed in two other schedules. Finally, this forward-looking order contemplates placing into the competitive civil service those positions for which competitive examinations are appropriate and should be conducted in order to secure the most qualified employees.

At present, the Civil Service Commission has requests from the departments and agencies for only several hundred of these policy-determining or confidential positions. Thus far, the Commission has allocated less than one hundred such positions into Schedule C. It is self-evident that, in accordance with the established policy of the administration, we are proceeding carefully. In my judgment, when the final number of Schedule C positions is established, it will constitute less than one-half of one percent of the total Federal employment. I do not believe that anyone can successfully defend a position which is critical of this policy on the grounds that it does not adhere to the fundamental principles of the merit system.

THE SECOND action in the personnel field which the administration has taken relates to the security of our nation. I believe the President's recent security order is not only of interest to you who are from the United States, but is also important to those members here who represent the great country north of our borders. All of us recall how disloyal and misguided employees of both the Canadian and American governments several years ago sought to give our countries' secrets to a foreign power. In this critical hour, we can ill afford complacency which could result in a repetition of these traitorous acts by others who might be employed or seek employment in our Government. Freedom-loving people everywhere in the world will find comfort in the fact that one of the first acts of President Eisenhower was to make certain that our Government is free from disloyal employees and from security risks in sensitive positions.

It is the policy of the administration that all persons employed by the Government shall be reliable, trustworthy, of good conduct and character, and completely loyal to the United States. The overwhelming majority of Federal employees conform to this standard. In my judgment, such an objective is compatible with justice and fairness to all individuals. The American people expect no more and demand no less. The new security program is based upon the fundamental principle that Government employment is a high privilege and not a vested right.

Under the terms of the security order, all employees occupying sensitive positions, and all persons entering the Federal service, are to be investigated to determine whether they meet the security standards outlined by the order. The security requirements for Government employment are set forth in detail and it is the first time in the history of the world that a free government has opened such information to public scrutiny. The Executive order and the security regulations are public information because we believe the people of the United States are entitled to know the standards, policies, and procedures with respect to this important matter. Adequate provision has been made so that all persons are entitled to a fair hearing before an impartial board in the event a preliminary adverse decision is made. This board will completely review the facts in each case appealed to it and will make appropriate recommendations to the head of the department or agency, who in turn is responsible for the final decision.

In response to those who raise a question as to the final decision resting with the heads of the departments and agencies,

allow me to point out that this is in strict compliance with existing law, Public Law 733, 81st Congress, which was approved on August 26, 1950.

Every effort has been made to protect the rights of our citizens. In the first place, each hearing board or panel will be composed of employees from an agency other than that employing the appellant. The employee will have the right to participate in the hearing, to be represented by an attorney of his choice, to bring witnesses in his own behalf to refute the specific charges which are made against him, and to cross-examine any witnesses offered in support of such charges.

In many respects the rights of the employee and applicant for Federal employment are greater than they were under the former loyalty order. As a member of the Civil Service Commission, it will be my responsibility, along with my two colleagues, to make certain that a continuing review is conducted of the manner in which the order is being carried out by the executive departments and agencies.

The Commission is to be the protector not only of the national security but also of the rights and privileges of Federal employees. Under the terms of the security order, it is our responsibility to determine deficiencies in the program which are inconsistent with the national security and tendencies to deny employees fair treatment under the Constitution, Federal laws, and the Executive order. If we find noncompliance with the spirit of the order, or that the order is being used for purposes other than to protect the security of our Nation, we will report such deviations to the National Security Council with recommendations for corrective action. I recognize the fearful responsibility which is ours. You may be assured that consistent with the President's established policy of protecting and defending the constitutional and legal rights of all our people, I shall be mindful of the difference between guilt by overt acts and alleged guilt by casual association.

It is my view that the security order represents the most effective method of dealing with a vital problem confronting all free nations, while at the same time preserving and protecting the rights and privileges of a people from the forces in the world today which menace their freedom.

What this order means to us all is that the best interest and security of the United States shall come first. This will produce a stronger Federal Government. In addition, and of utmost importance, the effect of the order will remove the cloud of uncertainty and doubt which has cast unjustified implications upon the loyalty of all Federal employees.

THE THIRD action which has been taken by our administration in the field of personnel management is the first step toward improving our over-all examining and selection procedures.

Under an agreement with the Post Office Department, the Commission has announced higher standards in postmaster examinations. These new standards are designed to attract better qualified applicants to fill vacancies, as they occur, among the 22,000 first-, second-, and third-class post offices.

The postmaster is a person who should be outstandingly qualified, a leader in the community, and one who enjoys the utmost respect of his fellow citizens. In many instances, he is the only person in the community who represents the Federal Government. His responsibilities and obligations necessitate the selection of the most competent and best-qualified person available.

Today we are fortunate in having a Postmaster General of the ability and capacity of the Honorable Arthur E. Summerfield. On March 25 he stated:

> "The Post Office should be operated on sound business principles. It is incumbent upon us to assure ourselves and the public that we employ as postmasters only those who are thoroughly capable of running a business organization."

Postmaster General Summerfield recognized immediately the importance of providing the Post Office Department with better qualified postmasters and, on the basis of the higher standards, new examinations already have been announced for

about 360 post offices out of the 1,700 where vacancies now exist. Additional postmaster examinations will be scheduled as rapidly as possible.

The Commission's primary objective under this program is to insure that its competitive examinations will result in the selection of only the best qualified applicants. We will devote our energies and resources to carrying out this policy.

So much for the actions which already have been taken to increase the efficiency of Government operations, particularly relating to the field of personnel administration.

WHAT may we expect in the way of progress in the future? Is our vision so limited that we now stand on the mountaintop and are sad because there are no more worlds to conquer? New horizons in personnel management can be seen only if we have the kind of vision which prompted your predecessors to form the Civil Service Assembly in 1906.

In my judgment, a few of the objectives toward which we must work are as follows:

1. Expanded opportunities for all of our people to be considered for Government service without discrimination because of sex, race, or religion.
2. The maintenance of a "hard core" of permanent career civil-service employees whose continuity of service is vitally important for our future progress.
3. Simplified civil-service rules and regulations upon which any sound public personnel policy must be based.
4. A better coordinated and a more effective placement program for displaced career employees who are affected by reductions in force.
5. The adoption of an effective and uniform promotion policy within the Federal service with the recognition of the Government as a single employer.
6. An effective training program for supervisors and the adoption of measures which will provide greater incentives and encouragement for the rank and file of Federal employees.

When reduced to its simplest terms, the key to a good personnel policy is founded upon these five attributes: simplicity; equality; opportunity; objectivity; and equity.

I MAKE no pretense of being an expert in the field of personnel administration. However, on the basis of more than 15 years' experience as an employee of the executive and legislative branches of Government, I have received some definite impressions regarding the future of the personnel field.

The first is that the basic principles of personnel administration are on trial today. You who represent the most capable exponents of personnel techniques in the field of government must be the first to recognize this challenge.

We have gone a long way since 1906 when the Civil Service Assembly was founded. We have developed better examining and placement techniques. By reason of the impetus which was given test development during World Wars I and II, the objective measurement of qualifications has been vastly improved. The level of academic education of all of our people has been lifted during the past 40 years. I am certain your experience is that we are securing better qualified applicants than at any other time in our history.

Nevertheless, some of us have reached the point where our reactions are mostly negative. I can think of personnel officials in the Federal Government who can give you a thousand reasons why a just and fair result cannot be obtained. There are those who contend that management can do nothing if an employee grievance arises because of an administrative error. Let us hope that we can revise our thinking upward and in the future adopt a positive approach to personnel problems. You who recommend the rules can also recommend improvements which are necessary in order to provide the kind of healthy atmosphere which will improve the morale of Federal employees.

In many instances we have come to rely completely upon aids sometimes referred to as "tools of management," such as performance ratings, promotion policies, incentive plans, exit interviews, grievance hearings, employee counselling, and other methods of increasing production and maintaining morale. No one will seriously dispute the fact that all of these elements have vastly improved employee-manage-

ment relations. However, I raise the question as to whether sometimes we are too prone to rely automatically upon rules and regulations instead of good judgment to solve personnel problems. In my opinion, there can be no future progress in the field of personnel management, particularly in the Government, without more flexibility. It goes without saying that we must have standards. But they should not become so complex, and we should not become so bound by blind adherence to them, that a just and equitable result is prevented.

In the past several months, I have received a second impression which constitutes another challenge to progress in the personnel field.

Those of you who are associated with the Federal Government must recognize that the newly-appointed top officials are looking to you for sound advice. The test of whether your chosen field of personnel administration can rise to the occasion or will "wither on the vine" depends upon your ability and desire to cooperate and provide common sense and responsive solutions to their problems. It was not difficult to do in former years—why should it be difficult today?

For many of the personnel officials and technicians in the Federal Government, a new administration is a new experience. But those of you in State and local governments who have been through many such changes know that you must "join the team," to get the job done that the people expect will be done.

Basically, progress in personnel administration has been achieved because you have recognized personnel problems as problems in human relations. Whether we succeed or fail in the years to come depends upon your ability—and my ability—to adopt the lesson of the Sermon on the Mount in our day-to-day operations.

To the millions of hard-working, faithful, and loyal civil service employees in free governments everywhere, we represent a hope for better merit systems. As I recall what *has* been done by you, and what *can* be done by us, I have pride in the past, confidence in the present, and faith in the future.

"Passing the Buck"

(Continued from page ii)

to correct the situation. If it cannot be corrected, we should recognize that we have a liability on the team. Maturity is an essential ingredient in management competency.

There is nothing funny, therefore, about asking subordinates for solutions and not problems. The executive who encourages his men to bring him answers instead of questions is simply curtailing a natural inclination on their part to "pass the buck." He is an able man.—From "The President's Scratchpad" column by Lawrence A. Appley, President, American Management Association, appearing in the April, 1953, issue of *Management News*. Reproduced with permission of AMA, publishers.

Identification and Measurement of Case Worker Characteristics . . .

CHARLES S. GARDINER
and JOHN H. WINTERS

SINCE the welfare job is to help troubled people work out their problems and achieve optimum usefulness, the social worker's attitude toward people and their various problems is the crux of successful performance in this profession. With this in mind, the Texas Joint Merit System Council and the Texas Department of Public Welfare have been conducting a three-year study concerned with the formulation of a test to identify, and perhaps measure, positive and negative attitudes that affect performance of the Welfare Department's social workers—legally known as Field Workers.

The purpose of the Merit System examinations, which have been in effect since the Merit System Council became the testing unit for the Welfare Department in 1940, has been to measure ability to learn. While this is of value and is to be continued, the Welfare Department has found that some employees who rated high in ability to learn have been hindered from successful work with clients because of their attitude toward people in general, feelings about authority, prejudice around various social problems, and engrossment in their own problems to the exclusion of those of their clients. It was felt that another measure, besides the standard Merit System examination, was needed in order to identify the presence or absence in a candidate of these attitudes which are very important factors in job success.

The Joint Merit System Council first planned the development of a rating scale for oral examinations. However, because of the scarcity of candidates, the vast size of Texas, and the fact that the subjective element would play such a large part in the oral examination, the conclusion was reached that better results might be achieved through written tests designed to measure attitudes. The Merit System Council had been using the multiple response "best answer" type of test. It was decided that the same form of test could be used in measuring attitudes. Two large problems then arose. The first was how to identify the particular attitudes or characteristics most important to job success. The second was to find a way to measure or evaluate these factors in an examination.

Essays of Worker Characteristics Gathered

IN DEALING with the first problem, the leaders of the project decided to go to the Field Representatives and Supervisors of the Welfare Department. A committee was formed from this group, and its nine members helped plan and execute the program. It seemed important to go to these Supervisors because, in the administrative set-up of this agency, it is the Supervisor, under the direction of the Field Representative, who continuously evaluates the performance of Workers and teaches them. The Merit System Council, through the State Department of Public Welfare, requested each Field Representative and each Supervisor to provide written descriptions of the most and of the least efficient Field Worker he had ever supervised. A total of 176 descriptions was submitted.

From these, all descriptive phrases were picked out and made into a list. There were 700 of these phrases. Generally speaking, they dealt with attitudes toward applicants for assistance and people in general, attitudes toward the job, attitudes toward himself, attitudes toward supervision, miscellaneous personality traits, quality and quantity of work, dress and appearance.

While the Merit System Council had been working with the Welfare Department on examinations for its Field Work-

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• JOHN H. WINTERS is Executive Director of the Texas State Department of Public Welfare and President of the American Public Welfare Association.

ers, the Council had also been carrying on a similar project in cooperation with the Texas Employment Commission. The Office Managers who had been requested to take part in the study sent descriptions of their most and least efficient Interviewers. From the 70 descriptions turned in, a total of 400 descriptive phrases were taken. These were reduced to 140 after elimination of duplications.

The Merit System staff noted the similarity between the list of phrases descriptive of Field Workers and the phrases descriptive of Interviewers. Consequently, the Personnel Officer of the Employment Commission and the Supervisor of Field Staff of the Welfare Department were called in. They, together with the Merit System Director, went over the phrases and found that all but six of the phrases could be used to advantage in describing important characteristics both of Field Workers and of Interviewers. After eliminating duplications and phrases with too much overlap in meaning, 160 characteristics remained. These were exact expressions of Supervisors and Office Managers and, therefore, seemed particularly applicable to job success.

Since only six items were not interchangeable, the Merit System Council believed it could use the same material to construct both the Field Worker and Interviewer examinations. Due to limitations in the Merit System Council office of time and staff for research, it was decided that it would be impractical to carry on further studies in both agencies at that time. Because the Welfare Department provided a greater sample for testing, it was decided to proceed with the Field Worker study and to postpone the Interviewer study.

Most Efficient, Least Efficient Workers Rated

Using the 160 selected phrases, the Merit System Council prepared a list to be used in rating Workers. The more than 80 Supervisors of the Welfare Department were then asked to use this list in rating two currently employed Workers—the one most efficient and the one least efficient. A total of 165 different Workers were evaluated according to items on the list.

A sample list of the characteristics as set up for rating, with instructions to the Supervisors, is presented here.

Instructions:

Read each phrase over carefully and decide how well the phrase fits the worker you are rating. Then decide which one of the five gradations (which follow each phrase) is most appropriate. The five gradations to choose from are: very like, like, neutral, unlike, and very unlike.

If the characteristic fits the worker very well and is very like the person, draw a circle around the letters "VL" (very like).

If the phrase fits the person, but is not an outstanding trait of the person, or is only slightly like him, draw a circle around the letter "L" (like).

If the phrase is one which the worker is "betwixt and between" on, or average on, circle the letter "N" (neutral).

If the phrase describes a trait which is somewhat unlike the person or does not fit the person, draw a circle around the letters "UL" (unlike).

If the phrase is a characteristic which is very unlike the person or which is completely opposite to him, draw a circle around the letters "VU" (very unlike).

Read each of the following phrases and rate the worker according to the above instructions.

Characteristic	*Very Like*	*Like*	*Neutral*	*Unlike*	*Very Unlike*
1. Appropriately dressed	VL	L	N	UL	VU
2. Lacks creative imagination	VL	L	N	UL	VU
3. Seldom contributes to a discussion	VL	L	N	UL	VU
4. Does not want to understand people	VL	L	N	UL	VU
5. Easily frustrated	VL	L	N	UL	VU

Discrimination of Items Studied

The purpose of this evaluation was to determine which phrases showed the greatest differences in the way the more efficient and less efficient workers were rated. After the rating forms were returned to the Merit System Council by the Supervisors

and Field Representatives, a count was made to see how each group was rated on each item. Almost all of the items on the rating forms showed a rather high degree of discrimination between these groups.

It was found that of all the characteristics on the rating list, the greatest difference in the two groups was in the way they analyzed situations. In the collective opinion of the Supervisors and Field Representatives, almost all of the less efficient workers characteristically analyzed situations poorly, while the better workers analyzed them well. The item showing the least difference between the two groups was "Unusually quiet." The study revealed that neither group was unusually quiet. (This information may be gratifying to those of us who are not noted for silences.)

Revised Scale Used to Rate All Field Workers

AFTER studying the results of this rating, the Merit System Director and the combined committee from the Welfare Department and the Employment Commission decided that too many of the characteristics were of such a general nature that it would be extremely difficult to find a way to measure them. The decision was made to compile, from the original group of phrases, a second rating list using phrases which described the characteristics more specifically. When completed, this list consisted of 107 phrases. The Welfare Department Supervisors were asked to evaluate all of their currently employed Workers. They were requested *not* to identify themselves, or the workers rated, by name. It was felt that the individual Supervisor might feel more free to rate an employee with complete honesty if he knew that it could not in any manner affect the future of the employee or himself.

The ratings in this part of the study were of two kinds: (1) a rating of each Field Worker, using the revised list of items; and (2) a rating of each Field Worker as to his over-all job success. In the over-all evaluation, the Supervisor was to check one of the following descriptions:

1. Somewhat below the general run of Field Workers.
2. Better than most other Field Workers I have known.
3. One of the very best Field Workers I have known.
4. About what I would consider an average Field Worker. (Average is *not* used in the sense of mediocre or fair. It is intended to mean "in the middle range of the Field Worker group.")
5. One of the least satisfactory (not necessarily unsatisfactory) Field Workers I have known.

In the specific rating on individual items these instructions were given:

THINK OF EACH CHARACTERISTIC SEPARATELY FROM YOUR OVER-ALL OPINION OF THE EMPLOYEE AND RATE THE INDIVIDUAL ON THAT CHARACTERISTIC ALONE: The tendency for supervisors to rate a worker on a single characteristic in terms of his over-all opinion of the worker is especially strong when the supervisor rates his better workers. This results in a distorted picture of the worker's characteristics. The only way to avoid this is for the supervisor constantly to keep in mind, while rating, that he is subject to this tendency, and to attempt to rate on the characteristic alone.

RATE ALL OF YOUR WORKERS ON ONE CHARACTERISTIC AT A TIME BEFORE GOING ON TO THE NEXT CHARACTERISTIC. The most commonly used procedure in rating is for the supervisor to rate an employee on the entire form, then rate the next employee on the entire form, and so on until the last employee is rated. If this is done, then the phrases are apt to lose their meaning by the time you re-examine each phrase for the last worker. Also your changing mood from day to day unduly influences the ratings on some workers. The suggested procedure gets around these difficulties. It consists of rating all of your employees on one characteristic at a time before going on to the next characteristic.

AFTER COMPLETING THE RATINGS ON THE CHARACTERISTICS, PLEASE GIVE AN OVER-ALL RATING OF THE EMPLOYEE. This is a very important part of what we are asking you to do. Space for the ratings is provided on the backs of the IBM sheets. The possible ratings are listed there and are self-explanatory.

FOR EACH CHARACTERISTIC YOU ARE TO RATE THE INDIVIDUAL EITHER 1, 2, 3, 4, OR 5. These ratings differ from most others in that you do NOT compare the person being rated to some standard such as "outstanding," "satisfactory," or "unsatisfactory." You should try to forget whether the person is satisfactory or unsatisfactory in terms of the characteristic. Make

your rating on the basis of whether the characteristic is *more like or unlike him than it is like or unlike most other Field Workers.*

The ratings on the individual characteristics were made on IBM answer sheets. The specific ratings which were to be used on the characteristics are given below:

A rating of 1 means that the characteristic describes him much more closely than it does most other Field Workers.

A rating of 2 means that he has this characteristic to a greater degree than most other Field Workers.

A rating of 3 means that the worker is not like or unlike this to a greater extent than most other workers. He presents no particular problem or unusual asset in regard to this characteristic or its opposite.

A rating of 4 means that the worker is unlike this characteristic to a greater extent than most other Field Workers.

A rating of 5 means that he is unlike this characteristic to a much greater extent than most other Field Workers.

A group of 536 Field Workers were rated. The Supervisors performed the ratings conscientiously. Several reported that they felt they had a better understanding of their workers after going through the rating process. The number of workers rated in the various over-all job success categories are as follows:

One of the best	52
Better than most	117
About average	238
Somewhat below	79
One of least satisfactory	50

Reliability of Rating Studied

THE RESULTS of these ratings are still in the process of being analyzed. However, we do have some preliminary information as to some of the characteristics which show the greatest difference between the most and least efficient workers, and some that show the least difference. The ability to transfer learning from one experience to another; skill in gathering, evaluating and recording facts; a general background of knowledge and specific knowledge of laws and agency policies; acceptance (or rejection) of own responsibility for growth on the job; need and use of supervision; and intelligent curiosity are some of the most discriminating characteristics.

Examples of items showing the least difference between the efficient and the inefficient are over-intensity of feeling, meticulousness, expecting change too fast, participation in office gossip, the tendency to give more help to the client who has previously maintained a high living level, dislike of mechanics of job, and appropriate dress. Some of these phrases were apparently nondiscriminative because they applied to almost everyone, more efficient and less efficient alike. An example of this is "appropriately dressed." Others were nondiscriminative because they applied to almost no one in either group. "Meticulousness" is an example of such a characteristic.

Preparation of Situational Test Items

ON THE basis of present information about Field Worker characteristics, situational items seem to be the best approach to measuring attitudes which are operative in social contacts. Projective techniques have been used in individual and group oral examinations. It is the purpose of the Texas project to adapt the projective approach to the written examination. The Merit System Council, with the help of Supervisors from the Welfare Department, have produced 175 situational items. Two samples of these items follow:

(1) A farmer owned eighty acres of poor land but had no money. His daughter was afflicted with a serious bone disease, and only a specialist could do anything for her. The farmer took the girl to a specialist in the city and explained that he had no money for medical services but offered to give the doctor the eighty acres of land if he would do what he could for the girl. The doctor treated the girl without charge and cured her. With which of the following five statements do you most agree?

1. The doctor should not be expected to render such services for nothing.
2. The federal government should pay the doctor for his services at a reasonable rate.
3. He set a splendid example for the medical profession.
4. The local community chest should have reimbursed the doctor for his actual expenses.

5. The doctor should have taken a mortgage on the man's farm.

Relative to the above case: the farmer later became wealthy as a result of oil being discovered on his eighty acres of land. In this case what should the farmer do?

1. Offer to pay the doctor the usual fee for services rendered with interest.
2. Offer to pay the doctor a share in his oil royalties.
3. Offer to pay the doctor several thousand dollars out of gratitude for his daughter's recovery.
4. Give the hospital several thousand dollars.
5. Set up a trust fund for other children who have bone disease.

In the above case, if the farmer had offered the doctor $10,000, the doctor should:

1. Refuse to accept it.
2. Accept it on the grounds that the man was rich and did not need it anyway.
3. Accept it as a fund to pay for other needy cases which come to him.
4. Accept it and give it to the Red Cross.
5. Accept it and give it to charity.

(2) Mr. A is approached in his office and asked for a donation to a charitable organization which is campaigning for funds. Mr. A has had several unpleasant dealings with this organization in the past and is strongly opposed to it. For this reason, he refuses to make a donation. The woman who has approached him politely repeats the request, citing some of the services which the organization performs. Mr. A is rather busy and feels that he cannot spend any more time on the matter. In order to end the conversation he should:

1. Repeat his refusal and proceed to relate his reason for doing so.
2. Make a small donation.
3. Repeat his refusal in hopes that the women will become discouraged.
4. Tell the woman that he will think it over.
5. Tell her that he has already made a contribution to the Community Chest.

Summary

In order to weed out flaws, such as distractors (wrong answers) that are never chosen by anyone answering the item, we are now in the process of giving the items to several college groups. These groups are composed of approximately 300 students at Baylor University, 300 at the University of Houston, and 150 at Southern Methodist University. In addition to using the results of this testing to eliminate technical flaws, we are also checking to see if there are differences in the way various college majors respond to the items.

Considerable future study is planned before these situational items would be used as a part of the regular Merit System examinations. We recognize that much work lies ahead before our idea becomes a reality, and we are prepared to continue working at a slow but steady pace. We do believe, however, that our aim can be accomplished, and that future Welfare personnel will be better able to handle their difficult human and legal responsibilities.

Who Wants to Know Why He Fails? Well! We Do!

We've been checkin'. Been findin' out about reasons. Wanted to know why men fail. We asked questions. Talked to men who know men. We found out things.

We found that men who think or act or say these following things . . . f-a-i-l!

1. I only work from 9 to 5. 2. It can't be done. 3. I haven't time to read. 4. I don't need his criticisms. 5. I take things as they come. 6. Old ways are best. 7. New machines cost too much. 8. Let him wait for his money. 9. You can't satisfy a buyer. 10. What I lose on one buyer I make up on the next one. 11. You want entirely too much salary. 12. Nuts to you.—Oren Arbogust, *The Notebook of a Printer*, May, 1953, published by The Gentry Printing Company, 111 W. Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4.

Improving Personnel Selection . JOHN C. FLANAGAN

MOST personnel selection programs have advanced to the stage that it is possible to select the generally best people from a group of applicants. The most significant improvements in personnel selection procedures can therefore be expected from a program designed to obtain more precise statements of the requirements for a particular position and the development of procedures that will make it possible to select not just those applicants who are generally best, but those whose abilities and personal characteristics provide the closest fit to the specific job requirements. Experience has demonstrated time and again that most of us in personnel selection work spend too little time in defining the job before we start to develop specific selection methods.

The frequently superficial job descriptions must be replaced by comprehensive statements of the important job requirements, compiled and evaluated on a systematic basis. On several projects recently carried out by the American Institute for Research, a period of from several months to a year was spent in obtaining the critical requirements for certain important jobs. Hundreds of persons either engaged in or supervising the positions being studied were interviewed individually or in groups in order to collect data regarding specific behaviors that make the difference between success and failure on the job. If a competent job is done in setting up the interview program and collecting the data from qualified participants, supervisors, and observers, it is possible to formulate a precise factual definition of the requirements for effective work on the job.

Many jobs are not sufficiently important to justify such a large expenditure of time and effort on the definition of the requirements. For such situations, two approaches have been found practical. The first is illustrated by a series of projects carried out by Charles E. Wager and Milton I. Sharon as a part of the United States Civil Service Commission's Quality Examining Program. These studies were conducted under the general direction of Louis S. Lyon, Director of the Sixth United States Civil Service Region. This work demonstrated that valuable results could be obtained in collecting systematic data concerning job requirements by using simplified procedures requiring days rather than months.

The second approach to obtaining job requirements for the more typical group of positions involves the use of systematic records of job performance. This is certainly a more practical and desirable procedure. Unfortunately, only rarely are such performance records available. Certainly those responsible for personnel selection should do everything they can to improve the quality and availability of comprehensive records. In the long run, it seems certain that detailed and specific personnel performance records hold the key to improved personnel selection.

Work on recent research projects has shown that the systematic collection of this type of factual data is of great help on personnel selection problems not only in deciding what should be measured, but also in deciding how to measure it. The specific incidents describing effective and ineffective on-the-job performance provide many ideas for types of test materials, for item content, and for other selection methods. The remainder of this discussion will be devoted to a review of some of the more promising developments which have resulted from applications of the techniques outlined above.

The Use of Job Elements in Developing Selection Procedures

THE MORE rational approach to job description and job analysis is the formulation of job requirements in terms of behavior. These behaviors are job elements

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or job tasks that are fairly well identified and can be directly related to selection tests or procedures known to have predictive value for the corresponding job elements. Examples of such job elements are: making numerical computations, instrument reading, devising new procedures and devices, inspecting parts, organizing the work of others, and disregarding personal convenience.

The use of job elements makes it possible to utilize directly data from previous studies indicating the validity of a specific selection procedure for a closely similar type of behavior to that included in the job under immediate study. The more traditional approach was to validate all tests for the job as a whole. This placed little or no emphasis on the analysis of the criterion or those job components contributing most significantly to success or failure on the job. If we are able to identify the key job elements in a new job with confidence, we can proceed immediately to selection procedures for which predictive value for these elements has already been established. The use of such an approach greatly increases the generality of the findings from specific studies. If validation is in terms of an unanalyzed composite criterion, the only conclusion which can be drawn about a selection device is that it will or will not predict success in this job. On the other hand, if information is available that this particular selection device is useful in predicting one specifically defined task or element on this job, this information can be utilized whenever we find a new job containing the same task or job element. Utilizing the new approach, we are no longer so narrowly limited to empirical validation studies but are able to make increased use of a genuine practical understanding of the basis for predictive value of the selection procedure. It should be carefully noted at this point that many examiners have for years been doing some analysis of the criterion and making judgments as to which parts of the criterion were being predicted by which selection devices. This approach merely proposes to systematize and formalize a procedure that any practical worker in the field has been utilizing to some degree already.

The Importance of Evaluating the Intangibles

PERHAPS the greatest advances with respect to selection procedures can be expected in terms of the evaluation of the intangibles. Although many problems remain in evaluating information, skills, and basic aptitudes in an efficient manner, this area is relatively well advanced in comparison with the evaluation of such job elements as those included in working effectively with others, leadership qualities, personal responsibility and similar factors in the general area of attitudes, interests, motivation, temperament, and other personality characteristics. Few public personnel people are likely to argue that these "so-called" intangibles are unimportant. It may, however, be worthwhile to review briefly some factual data recently collected regarding this matter.

The critical incidents reporting the specific ways in which five types of workers were unusually effective or ineffective in carrying out important aspects of their jobs have been analyzed to determine the proportion of these incidents involving motivations, work habits, and social relations as contrasted with those involving information, intellectual and manual skills, aptitudes, and similar job abilities. It was found[1] that from 24 to 75 percent of the incidents represented motivational and personality factors as differentiated from technical competence. The group showing the smallest proportion of such incidents is a sample of air route traffic controllers working for the Civil Aeronautics Administration. These men have rather specific technical jobs and in the group of approximately 1200 incidents collected 24 percent involved such behaviors as helping other controllers, maintaining harmonious relations and similar nontechnical aspects of the job. For the second type of workers, research workers in industrial and government laboratories, more than 3000 critical incidents were gathered.

[1] Elmer D. West, "The Significance of Interpersonal Relationships in Job Performance." *Occupations*, 1951, pp. 438-40.

This group represents a somewhat more varied type of activity and many of those reported on had some administrative responsibilities. Approximately 33 percent of their incidents were classified as involving the acceptance of personal and organizational responsibility or working with other personnel or groups. In a study of hourly wage workers in industrial plants, 2000 critical incidents were reported by foremen. Of these, 61 percent were related to behaviors classified as work habits, temperament, and other personality qualities. In a study of dentists it was found that the proportion of critical incidents having to do with patient relationships and personal responsibility was 59 percent for those incidents reported by the dentists themselves and 70 percent for the incidents reported by patients. The final group studied in this survey were officers of the United States Air Force. Of approximately 3000 behaviors reported, 75 percent involved such matters as acceptance of personal and organizational responsibility and working with others.

It is believed that the five types of workers represented above are a fairly typical sample. It therefore appears that for many of our jobs motivational and personality factors account for more than 50 percent of the specific behaviors responsible for success or failure on important aspects of the job.

These facts certainly emphasize the need to develop adequate procedures for measuring these personnel attributes. As noted above, they are so difficult to measure and evaluate that they are frequently called intangibles. Let us review recent progress toward measuring these intangibles. The first thing we should note in discussing the measurement of personality characteristics is the great difficulty in evaluating selection devices or procedures which have been proposed as suitable measures. Unless we have an unimpeachable procedure for identifying the people at various points along the personality dimension described, we are entirely at a loss to determine whether a proposed measure is effective or not in performing its function. Unfortunately many of the criteria which have been available for evaluating success on various jobs have left out the important personality factors in arriving at the scores for the various individuals. Some criteria do seem to include personality variables, but they do so in a rather indiscriminate way. In practically no currently available situations do we have good on-the-job performance records in terms of the separate types of behaviors making for success or failure. We have ordinarily only one hodgepodge evaluation including many both relevant and irrelevant factors, usually weighted in accordance with unknown and individual judgments of relative value. As our evaluations of typical on-the-job performance improve in precision and specificity, substantial progress should be made in the measurement of the personality characteristics which such records reveal. In the meantime, four approaches have shown substantial promise and will be briefly described here.

Biographical Data Blanks

It has been well established that facts regarding formal experience and training and also avocational experiences such as sports, hobbies, and other recreational activities sometimes make possible fairly satisfactory predictions regarding success or failure in a particular type of work. Although in some instances good predictions have been obtained from as few as ten key items, it appears preferable that as many as 50 or 100 be included to achieve stability in prediction. This is easily demonstrated by the nature of some of these items. For example it was found that having experience in riding a motorcycle was definitely useful as an item for selecting airplane pilots. This item could only be regarded as one small indicator and needed reinforcement from many other similar items if useful predictions were to be obtained. This point is perhaps even clearer when we consider such items as skiing, or sailing a boat which are also valid items, but depend for their validity on only small proportions of the population who have had opportunities to engage in these activities.

In preparing items of this type there are two important considerations to be kept in mind. The first is that the items should be as objective as possible. The candidate

should not be asked if he likes to go duck hunting, but rather a more objective question such as the number of ducks he killed during the past hunting season. In other words, the candidate should always know what the right answer is for him and not have to make guesses or estimates. The second consideration is that to as great an extent as possible, the items should be confirmable. Whether or not he likes duck hunting is not very confirmable. The matter of how many ducks he killed last year is somewhat more confirmable although still leaving something to be desired in this respect. On the other hand, whether or not he had a license for duck hunting the previous season is not only objective but a matter of public record which can be confirmed.

Differential Information Tests

A SECOND type of item which has shown considerable promise is the information test item. Such items are designed to get at the same type of background and participation data as the biographical data questions. They have the further advantage that they leave even less room for interpretation on the part of the applicant than objective and confirmable biographical data items. They also make it possible to probe a little more deeply into the extent of participation of the candidate. For example in the item mentioned above, the candidate could be asked what type of shotgun was most suitable for a particular type of duck hunting, or he could be asked what type of skis were most suitable for jumping rather than how many times he went skiing last season. This type of general information item has proved the most valid single type in measuring motivational and interest factors in selecting airplane pilots. Such items as these indicate a good deal about the individual's past behavior, which is probably the best basis for predicting future behavior.

Multiple-Choice Situation Tests

THE THIRD type of item which has shown promise is the multiple-choice situation item. Such items describe a practical situation in considerable detail and then ask the candidate which of several choices represents the best thing to do in this situation. Such items are difficult to construct because the correct choice must appear clearly correct to competent workers in the field but not obvious to all applicants. This type of item was successfully employed recently in the measurement of the attitudes of job applicants for a manufacturing concern.

The development and validation of these items consisted of three steps. In the first stage the items as originally written were given to a large number of high school students. These students were also asked to indicate directly their attitudes about such matters as a fair day's work for a fair day's pay, the functions of foremen, the attitudes of management, and similar points considered important by the personnel department of the employing company. Since the students' answers would have no practical effect on them it was believed that they answered the direct questions rather frankly. An item analysis was carried out to find out which of the indirect multiple-choice situation items were successful in predicting the answers to the direct questions.

The test was revised on this basis and next given to two groups consisting of 150 "desirable employees" and 150 "troublemakers" as nominated by their supervising foremen. Again the items were studied to determine which ones discriminated between the two groups, and the test was again revised.

The final test to which this instrument was put was to give it to a large number of applicants before they were hired and then to follow up to see which showed desirable attitudes during their first year on the job. In a number of plants where conventional merit rating procedures were used, no relationship was found between the test scores and the foremen's rating. This continued to be true even when considerable pains were taken by the personnel department to go around and try to collect more valid ratings by questioning the foremen about specific incidents and examples of employee behavior.

Fortunately for this study the foremen in one of the cooperating plants not only

kept daily records of technical competence with respect to the job tasks but also work habits and personality characteristics. In this plant, a study of 1000 men tested prior to beginning work on the job showed clear-cut significant discriminations between five groups of employees. These groups consisted of (1) those who had been fired for cause during the first year, (2) those who had one or more indications of poor attitude on the job, (3) those for whom no incidents of behavior had been reported, (4) those for whom less than ten indications of favorable attitude had been recorded, and (5) those for whom ten or more such indications had been noted. On the basis of these results, a third item analysis is to be performed. The results indicate that the revised test will make a significant contribution to the task of selecting the most suitable employees for work in this company.

Situational Performance Tests

THE FINAL type of procedure for selecting personnel with desirable personality characteristics to be discussed here will be the situational performance test. Perhaps the best known test of this type is the group oral performance test in which several candidates are given a topic for discussion or a problem for solution and observations are made of their behavior. A number of reports have appeared in the journals regarding such tests, and no attempt will be made to review these at this time.

We have recently completed the development of a situational performance test for leadership ability that brought out a number of points which will be reviewed briefly. The test that formed the basis for this development was superficially of the same type as those used by the Germans, the British, and the United States Office of Strategic Services in selecting various types of military personnel. The test consisted of four leaderless situations and sixteen situations in which there was a designated leader. Each test group consisted of four individuals so that each of the four individuals was observed in four leaderless situations, four times as the designated leader of his group, and was a follower twelve times. The test required about four hours testing time. The results[2] indicate that the test situations when administered by independent observers had fairly adequate reliability and substantial predictive value for other available criteria.

These tests, unlike most previous situational performance tests, were administered by relatively untrained, enlisted men. The factors which appeared to have led to the development of a successful instrument in this field are as follows:

1. A comprehensive statement of the types of behaviors which it was important to observe to obtain a valid indication of leadership ability was obtained through a systematic collection of leadership incidents. Thus, this study started with a comprehensive definition of leadership in terms of actual performance.
2. The situations were carefully structured so as to evoke behaviors of the types found to be important in the step mentioned above.
3. On the basis of try out and revision, it was determined that about twenty specific behaviors of the group of about fifty which had been identified as critical for effective leadership could be expected to be evoked by each of the situations. The situations were so arranged that in the one hundred and sixty items checked for each leader nearly all of these fifty important behavior elements were included.
4. The behaviors listed in connection with each situation required no inferences on the part of the observers. Either the person did or didn't do the specific act. In other words, this was a relatively objective form of the leadership test. It is believed that this is a crucial point, since many attempts to develop measures of this type have been unsuccessful due to the failure of independent observers to agree in their evaluations of the performance of the participants.

To illustrate this procedure, let us consider a situation where the designated leader is asked to use his squad of three men to move a command post to a new location fifty yards away. The situation is structured to provide an opportunity for showing some of the important behaviors

[2] John Sivy, Carl J. Lange, and Owen Jacobs (American Institute for Research) PRS Report No. 930, *Development of an Objective Form of the Leaders Reaction Test*. Washington: Personnel Research Section, TAGO, Department of the Army, 1952.

by giving the designated leader specific information about the need for concealment, the importance of speed, and the necessity for care to avoid damage of special equipment. The observer then can record specific behaviors and thus score the leader's performance.

It should be emphasized that the observer is not asked for his estimate or rating on the item, "Gave clear and complete orders to men." Instead he is asked to record yes or no responses to the question of whether the leader's briefing of the men included each of the following: (1) the need for concealment, (2) the importance of speed, and (3) the necessity for care to avoid damage to special equipment.

Similarly, instead of making a rating on such an item as "Showed ability to make sound plans," the observer is asked to report on a series of specific items such as: (1) were specific assignments made to each man, (2) did the leader plan so that no waiting for personnel was necessary before moving the item requiring all four to work together, and (3) did he personally check to see that the more delicate equipment was properly protected?

It was found that such items could be marked by relatively untrained men with a high degree of consistency from one situation to another. These observations of samples of actual behavior appear to offer a promising approach to measuring personal qualities.

Summary

THE PRIMARY point of these remarks has been a plea for more systematic and thorough analysis of job requirements prior to attempting the task of personnel selection. It is believed that the greatest improvement in personnel selection procedures can be obtained by devoting more attention not to the development of procedures themselves, but to the collection of factual data on which to base these procedures. The availability of this type of factual data leads to a number of specific improvements in personnel selection procedures. One of the most important of these is the clear identification and definition of the specific job elements which combine to make a particular job. The systematic use of such job elements makes possible the use of cumulative information regarding the predictive value of specific tests for important tasks included in a wide variety of jobs.

This type of systematic collection of data regarding the critical aspects of job performance is also very valuable in developing measures for those personality characteristics usually referred to as the intangibles. The principal point made regarding such measures is that the best prediction of behavior can be expected from careful observations and data regarding previous behaviors or objectively evaluated standard samples of behaviors. Four specific approaches were suggested:

1. The biographical data item, or what the applicant says he has done in the past.
2. The information type of item, or what he knows about the things he has done which are indirectly related to the type of personality characteristics required by the new job.
3. Multiple-choice situation items, or what he says should be done in a described situation.
4. Situational performance tests, or what he actually does in a realistic sample situation.

It is believed that the systematic development of situational performance tests in the manner described offers the greatest immediate promise for measuring the types of behaviors that have been regarded as intangibles. Progress along any of these lines depends on the development of efficient procedures for collecting adequate samples of actual job behavior on a sufficient number of individuals to provide a valid criterion with which to evaluate these procedures.

Independent Civil Service Commissions and Executive Power . . . . . . WILLIAM W. SHAW

In recent days many individuals, both in and out of the public service, have put forward the thesis that public personnel administration should exist only as a part of the executive power—not be independent of it. They state that an executive must carry out the laws through the bureaucracy if he is to fulfill his oath of office. They maintain that only through the processes of delegation can the executive carry out the commands of the law as declared by constitutions, legislatures, and courts. They say that if the executive cannot control the human beings in the executive branch of government, he cannot faithfully execute the laws. Therefore, it is maintained, a public personnel agency must be under executive power; not independent of it.

History of Control of Executive Power

The ideal long held in man's history of a necessary balance being maintained between governmental power and individual freedom can never be achieved, but this ideal we strive for without letup. In this struggle the relation of public personnel administration to executive power is also of concern. Many persons have held that public bureaucracy as a tool of executive power too often negates man's liberties.

No one can read the ideological struggles of ancient, medieval, and modern man reflecting the events of the day; championing one side of the struggle or the other; without seeing example after example of the necessity of limiting executive power. Running throughout the history of western man is the basic tenet that executive power should be under law, not above it. Natural law, Divine law, immemorial custom, the doctrine of tyrannicide, constitutionalism, and pluralism, have always been utilized to control excessive executive power. It has been of major concern in the United States.

Our founding fathers established controls over executive power in the Constitution. As in other respects, however, these controls were not expressed so minutely as to be unadaptable to the times or reflect the vigor of individuals elected to executive office. Much was left free to be controlled by electoral will, judicial review, legislative control, and the play of pressure groups. Nonetheless, executive power contains and continues to contain many indefinable, undelineated, and reserve powers ready to be exercised by the necessities of the day—as seen by a vigorous, forceful executive.

In the states, the supremacy of the legislature still exists, and executive power remains far weaker than in the federal government. In recent years, however, the strengthening of the powers of the governor, the rise of the council-manager plan, and the strong-mayor form of city government have rapidly been building up executive power in state and local governments.

Growth of Executive Responsibility—and Power

The growth of executive power reflects the situation of the times. The myriad of services rendered to the people, their complexity, and the demand for quick action all lend ammunition to the argument that executive power be concentrated and that it be given powers equivalent with its responsibilities.

The attitudes and thoughts as well as the methodology of many government administrators have been influenced by the reputed efficiency and speed of large-scale enterprise. The rise of the corporation brought with it a delineation between policy and administration—the establishment of a hierarchy to obtain results. Mili-

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tary and church administration has also been cited as added evidence of the desirability of building up executive power to get things executed efficiently, economically, and in a "business-like manner." As part of executive power, bureaucracy, carrying out that power, has been thought of by some to be the instrument of executive power.

The Executive versus the Civil Service Commission

THE IDEA of the rule of law and not of men has sometimes been lost sight of in present-day efforts to increase executive power and thereby make government more efficient. In the long struggle to provide for proper balance in order to protect liberties, there arises in each era the necessity to reassess the way in which we are proceeding. In recent years the idea of an independent Civil Service Commission, distinct and separate from the chief executive, has been frowned upon. There has been an increasing outcry to do away with a civil service commission and substitute the single personnel officer. Since this officer would be responsible to the chief executive, power over personnel administration would be transferred to the executive.

Frequently, however, in practice, in the day-by-day operations of government, career officers and employees have experienced the excesses of executive power much as they have experienced the excesses of legislative and judicial power. To many, in the course of the routine of the day's work, the command of executive power has been to ignore the law, delay the law, wink at the law, or in many other ways seek to use the expertness of bureaucracy to forestall, misinterpret, or abuse the requirements of law.

The situations in which this frequently occurs are not situations of magnitude but of minuteness. The attack is one of chipping away rather than slicing great chunks. In this manner slow deterioration of the services results, hopeless despair descends upon the bureaucracy. The liberties, along with the efficiency and economy of administration, are lost to the people.

The Danger of Professionalism

THE EARLY important reason for the establishment of civil service commissions and the fight to maintain their independence resulted from what used to be called "the excesses of the spoils politicians." Does there not also exist a danger in "the excesses of professionalism"? Today we see professionals holding executive power and under the guise of professionalism often times resorting to excesses. Whether the excesses of executive power stem from the rottenness of spoils excess or whether it is garbed in the desire to provide efficiency, expertness, or economy, the end result might be the same. Too great an assumption of power by any one arm of government is dangerous.

The Role of the Bureaucracy

THE PERSONNEL agency has responsibility for a very important segment of government. No one can read the literature in the field of public administration without seeing a sizable segment of that literature being devoted to the problems of public personnel administration. Those in responsible authority for this important area of public administration need to be aware of the responsibility of protecting the rule of law against excesses of power,—executive or any other. There must be a retention of the independence of the bureaucracy if, under the modern state, the liberties of our people are to be maintained. All too frequently, the course of history has shown the danger of concentrating power in an unbalanced state in any government. If the bureaucracy can preserve its allegiance to the law, to the heritage of our constitutionalism, it is one more pathway by which the liberties of our people can be maintained in this modern world of governmental complexity, vastness, and speed.

He today who controls bureaucracy controls the power of the state. The slowness of judicial review and legislative investigation and the inability of public inquiry to be present at the time events take place give great fountainheads of power to the executive. A bureaucracy, however, by law being able to maintain independence from the absolutism of executive power, and

dedicated to the responsibility of preserving the heritage of man under the concept of the rule of law, can do much to preserve the liberties which western man down through the ages has so preciously won. The countervailing power of an independent civil service commission can do much to provide a bureaucracy with the climate in which it can apply the rule of law when excesses of executive power may be contemplated.

The Role of the Civil Service Commission

MERE establishment, however, of an independent civil service commission cannot guarantee the results its proponents desire. There have been too many so-called "independent commissions" that turn out to be subservient rather than independent. It, therefore, is clear that the method of appointing an independent civil service commission is the determining factor in whether it is possible for it to remain independent. The methods of appointing civil service commissions in Cincinnati, New Orleans, Philadelphia, and the State of Louisiana are being watched to see how effective are these methods in the light of experience.[1] So far, there is every indication that these commissions are doing a successful piece of work and maintaining their independence.

It is much more difficult, however, to devise methods by which independence can be integrated with cooperation. A modern civil service agency must help the executive provide the services essential to a modern personnel program, for example, in-service training, employee communication programs, suggestion systems, grievance procedures. Since a close relation between management and employee groups is necessary if these programs are successful, independence may be a deterrent.

It is true, however, that if a civil service commission is composed of members who understand the problem of hierarchy and if directors of personnel serving the commissions are well-trained and experienced in modern personnel administration, there need exist no roadblock to management-employee cooperation. Independence might also help convince the public at large as well as employee and management groups of the objectivity and impartiality of the commission and its staff in the development of modern personnel practices and procedures. On the other hand, if the personnel function, by law, was made a part of the chief executive, public opinion might well consider it to be political rather than professional.

The City Manager and the Civil Service Commission

SUCH statements, however, may be questioned when we consider the forms of government springing up which accept the executive as professional. For example, the City Manager form of government clearly provides for professional management. The rapid growth of this form of government at municipal and county levels is a striking feature of recent times. It is not so easy, therefore, for the proponents of an independent civil service commission to refuse to be integrated when professional competency is at the helm. The proponents, however, of an independent civil service commission allege that this movement is too recent to give up the gains of the past. Some of them see the possibility that city managers, as they increasingly emphasize the necessity of sound public relations, give indication that they may become enmeshed with political realities. In other words, public relations may soon become political and it is therefore too early to determine whether the independent civil service commission should go. The mere existence of a city manager does not necessarily mean that professionalism is here to stay. And, even if it is, there is still need for a countervailing power to act as a brake upon the excesses of a stronger executive.

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[1] Editor's note: In each of these jurisdictions a special legal arrangement is provided which takes away from the chief executive unrestricted authority for appointment of the members of the civil service commission. For example, in Philadelphia the Mayor's choice of appointees to the three-member commission is restricted to a list submitted by a "Civil Service Panel" composed of seven representatives of educational, civic, and labor organizations.

Judicial Check on the Civil Service Commission

Be this as it may, how would it be possible for anyone aggrieved by the actions of an independent civil service commission to seek a remedy? Certainly if excesses of power are to be experienced in government, excesses of power might well be experienced at the hands of an independent civil service commission. Here, again, experience has shown that judicial review is possible by providing for appeal to the regular courts of the state. The recent Louisiana constitutional amendment provides that appeals from the Louisiana State Civil Service Commission and the New Orleans City Civil Service Commission are directly to the Supreme Court of the State of Louisiana, and then only in law and not in fact. This means that there will be no necessity to go through inferior courts with all the delay and costs involved. There is immediate access to the Supreme Court. In effect, therefore, the civil service commissions mentioned above are equal to the court of appeals in matters involving public personnel administration. It will be interesting to see experience unfold so that this idea may be tested as a practical answer to the problem of satisfying those aggrieved by the actions of these independent commissions.

In Summary

In my opinion, there can be no final conclusions in this very difficult area of public personnel administration. The struggle that is now going on between the development of executive power and the supporters of independent civil service commissions will probably find a solution somewhere between the two extremes. The distrust of our people for strong executive power, contrasted with the desire of people to have economy and efficiency of administration, presents a problem that can have no easy solution.

What Makes an Executive Tick?

A few years ago the Illinois Manufacturing Association was positively amazed to find that something like twenty-two executives (Vice-presidents or Presidents of Corporations) in industrial firms in the State of Illinois in the previous years had resigned their positions. The Illinois Manufacturing Association was disturbed about this. So they gave enough money to finance a study of the situation and I interviewed everyone of the twenty-two men. No interview was less than three to six hours. One question was: "Why did you leave your position?" I got lots of reasons, all kinds—health reasons, and so on, but there was one common thread which ran something like this. They felt that their jobs were completed. The mission was done and they wanted a new child. One of the men had taken over the sales of Caterpillar Tractor Company and really put it on the map. He resigned that position to take over the presidency of a company in Ottawa at a $45,000 drop in salary. Why? Because he had finished the job and it was so well organized that he really had nothing to do. He wanted a new challenge. Money apparently was no consideration. He wanted to go and put another company on the map. He said, further, that he imagined when he got that finished he probably would be looking for another job. That was the common pattern; not all that clearcut but the same problem. A real executive, a real manager, is one who is looking for new challenges.—Dr. Earl Strong, Director of Executive Development Programs Staff, U.S. Civil Service Commission, in speech before Philadelphia Federal Personnel Council.

Qualifications of Candidates for an Entrance Class in Relation to Written Test Scores . . . .

FRANZISKA T. HEBERLE

IN PREPARING a test for an entrance classification, the examiner is faced with a specific problem. The examination should be general enough that applicants who do not have training or experience in the special line of work can be successful. On the other hand, the examination should also select candidates who have the special knowledge and abilities required on the job. The class of Welfare Visitor seemed a good example to investigate how far the examination used by the Louisiana Merit System Council had fulfilled these two purposes.

Minimum Requirements

THE MINIMUM requirements for Welfare Visitor are wide, and the actual qualifications of candidates are varied. However, they can easily be divided into groups significant for our problem. College graduation without further experience is the minimum requirement. This education can be substituted by two years of college plus two years of experience related to social work, or by two years of social work and two years of related experience.

These requirements have the effect that the younger applicants have to have four years of college in order to qualify, since they could not gain the experience allowed for substitution unless they had finished college. Older applicants, however, frequently have gained teaching experience on the basis of two years of college; in the early years of public social work, persons with only high school education were often employed in this field, and they can qualify for Welfare Visitor without any college education.

The recruitment of Welfare Visitors is difficult in certain rural areas of the State. If the requirements were restricted to college graduates, it would be impossible to fill all positions. Besides, substitution for college graduation seems desirable to allow for the employment of older persons with a variety of experience.

Purpose of Analyses of Test Results

THREE administrations of the identical examination with the same passing point were investigated. When the test was given the first time, one-third of the candidates made a score of 69.5 or less, one-third between 70.3 and 83.0, and one-third 83.8 or more. This division was maintained for the analysis of the two later administrations although the proportion of candidates in the three groups changed somewhat: more than one-third of the candidates scored in the middle group in the later administrations of the examination.

Candidates' scores were tabulated according to whether the candidate had a completed college education or not, whether he had social work experience, other experience or no previous employment. Candidates "with social work experience" had either case work employment prior to their application, were employed as Welfare Visitor (provisionals) or were enrolled in a school of social work at the time of the examination. Candidates "without experience" were recent graduates or candidates accepted conditionally pending their graduation.

The analysis was made in order to determine (1) if there was any relationship between qualification of candidates for Welfare Visitor and the results of the written test and (2) if our examination was geared to consider the variety of background of candidates. We wanted to determine if it gave a fair chance to persons whose lack of college graduation was not due to their failure in classes but rather

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to their lack of opportunity to get a college education. We also wanted to see if the examination, as an entrance examination, might be geared too much in favor of candidates who possessed social work training or experience. In an entrance examination, candidates with a general education without specific experience ought to have a chance to make good grades if they have better than average abilities.

Results of Analyses

THE FOLLOWING data are the high-lights of the results of this investigation: 502 candidates were examined. 76.5 percent of them were college graduates. 23.5 percent had less education. Of the 384 college graduates, 131 or 34.1 percent had social work experience when they took the examination, and 44, or 37.3 percent of the 118 nongraduates had such experience.

College graduates had a better chance of passing the examination: 76.0 percent of the college graduates passed while only 54.2 percent of the nongraduates passed. Graduates also had a better chance to score 83.8 or more; 30.4 percent of the college graduates made this high score as over against 11.8 percent of the nongraduates.

Further, all candidates with social work experience had a better chance of passing the examination (82.9 percent) than those without such experience (64.5 percent). The difference between the two groups was still greater when the percentage of those with scores of 83.8 or more was compared: 41.2 percent of those with social work experience, 18.0 percent of those without social work experience made this high score.

Since college graduates, on the one hand, and candidates with social work experience, on the other hand, made much better scores than candidates without these qualifications, it could be expected that all candidates who possessed a combination of these two qualifications would have a still better chance of passing the examination. This was indeed the case: 89.3 percent of them passed. In the table below, the groups of candidates with various qualifications are arranged according to the percentage who passed the examination.

Summary

THE RESULTS seem to justify the following conclusions: While a combination of social work experience and college graduation provides the best preparation for success on the Welfare Visitor examination, candidates with another background can also pass the examination and can even make a high score on it. Thus, it can be assumed that the examination is adequate in serving to select the best candidates out of groups with rather varied backgrounds, without entirely excluding the group apparently the least well qualified.

	Number	Percent Passing: Score of 70.0 or More	Percent Passing: Score of 83.8 or More
All candidates	502	70.9	26.1
College graduates with social work experience	131	89.3	48.8
Both graduates and nongraduates with social work experience	175	82.9	41.2
All candidates who were college graduates	384	76.0	30.4
College graduates without social work experience	253	69.2	21.0
Both graduates and nongraduates without social work experience	327	64.5	18.0
All candidates who were not college graduates	118	54.2	11.8
Nongraduates without social work experience	74	48.7	8.1

What Kind of Job Evaluation? . . LELAND D. LUTZ

During and since World War II there has been a tremendous increase in interest in and the use of job evaluation plans in private industry. A survey of 3,445 companies by the National Industrial Conference Board in 1947 showed that over half of them had some sort of job evaluation plan.[1]

Seeing this development, there is a school of thought in the field of wage and salary administration that public jurisdictions would profit immeasurably "if some of the job analysis and classification methods developed in modern industry were adopted."[2] As a generalization, this may well be true in some respects. But there is enough confusion evidenced in this approach to make it seem desirable to re-examine some of the bases of job evaluation plans and to restate some of the fundamental concepts of pay administration in the public service.

The field of wage and salary administration is not an easy one. Its problems are so many and varied that it presents a continuing challenge to anyone engaged in the administration of a pay structure. However, these problems are so complex, and the factors involved are at times so intangible that any system which promises to bring some sort of order out of the chaos is likely to be seized upon prematurely as a panacea.

This preoccupation with the search for a formula is not new. It has been characteristic of the early stages of development of nearly all of the social sciences. It has been only recently that many of these are coming under the more careful—and more fruitful—examination of systematic analysis.

That this same method of analysis should be applied to the field of wage and salary administration is obvious. "The job analyst should be a master of the scientific method, since his work and the effects of his work will be evaluated or criticized according to the rules of scientific procedure."[3] It has been through the shortcomings of various analysts in grasping the essential principles of the scientific method that errors in the development of job evaluation plans have been made in the past.

Nothing Basically New in Industrial Job Evaluation Plans

The first observation that can be made is that there is nothing basically new in the job evaluation plans of private industry. They are an adaptation of the classification approach of job ranking first developed in the public service. The fact that factory and office jobs have been peculiarly susceptible to quantitative measurement gives the mechanical and mathematical techniques an impression of scientific precision which is misleading. Viteles noted over a decade ago that "beneath the superficial orderliness of job evaluation techniques there is much that smacks of chaos."[4]

> There seems to be a magic about numbers which leads many astray. Because it is possible to assign scores in a range, for example, of 200 points—with individual scores of 78 or 112 or 129—the job analyst may conclude that the judgments made are more accurate than those made when ratings are limited to 10 points. As a matter of fact, there is ample evidence from psychological experiments that few, if any, observers are capable of making complex differentiations of the type involved in job evaluation by the rating method to a degree of refinement beyond a range of 5 or 6 or perhaps at most 7 points on a scale. . . . Job analysts will devote considerable effort to deciding whether the *estimated* (not measured) intelligence requirements of a job should be valued at 100, or 103, or 105 points in a range,

[1] Anonymous, *Personnel Activities in American Business,* National Industrial Conference Board Report, No. 86, New York, 1947, p. 29.

[2] Carroll L. Shartle, *Occupational Information* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946), p. 128.

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[3] Morris S. Viteles, "A Psychologist Looks at Job Evaluation," *Personnel,* Vol. 17, No. 3, February, 1941, p. 176.

[4] *Ibid.,* p. 165.

for example, of 300 points and then proceed to attach real significance to such scores.[5]

Job Evaluation Cannot Replace Judgment

THE SECOND observation that can be made is that job evaluation applies primarily to the development of the classification aspects of job analyses and can in no way replace the judgment that must be exercised in the administration of a public pay plan.[6] This is a point of confusion for those who look to job evaluation as an answer to the many and complex problems which beset any administrator of such a pay plan.

Even the foremost proponents of job evaluation plans do not pretend that job evaluation can replace judgment in the administration of a pay structure. What they do claim is that the outline of their plan will insure that the judgments will be based on facts. "Decisions thus made should be far sounder than those based upon general impressions."[7]

However, what they overlook is that the arbitrary judgment used in determining the number of factors and the points to be allowed imposes artificial limitations upon the exercise of judgment.

Edward Hay, a vigorous proponent of the factor analysis school, claims that "In point methods much, if not most, of the judgment is in the factors, their selection, definition, pointing and weighting."[8] He uses the percent method of factor comparison, expressing as percentages "(1) the magnitude of a factor in one job to the other factors in that job, and (2) the relative magnitude of a factor in one job to the same factor in the other key jobs."[9]

However, the same criticism applied above to the point system can be made of his system of percentages. "We now know . . . that the average rater cannot properly discriminate twenty grades of a trait. Judgments in terms of percentages have disappeared for the same reason."[10] That is, they have disappeared in any careful application of the scientific method to a nonquantitative subject.

Hay also would have us believe that Weber's Law[11] applies to factor comparison job evaluation. Yet the absence of any physical or objective measure of job values makes an application of Weber's Law to job evaluation data logically impossible. "An assumption that Weber's Law applies to job evaluation data implies quite incorrectly that job values can be ascertained by some physical or objective method of measurement. Such an assumption would lend unwonted support to one of job evaluation's recurrent delusions which holds that somewhere there exists 'real objective truth' about job values."[12]

No Basis for Determining Validity of Pay Differentials

ONE OF the great hopes held among those who would apply job evaluation plans in the administration of a public pay structure has been that here at last was an objective means of determining proper pay differentials between jobs. What they did not appreciate was this fact that job evaluation plans have no objective basis for determining the validity of their results. This is frankly admitted by Otis and Leukart:

> There is no absolute criterion of validity of pay differentials between jobs. Existing differentials in business and industry have developed through accepted usage over many years as a result of the interaction of many factors. . . . The validity of a job evaluation can be

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 169.

[6] "The rating plan and the applicable compensation plan must be separate and distinct and should be so understood by all parties concerned." Herbert S. Fuhrman, "Some Basic Principles of Wage and Salary Administration." *Handbook of Wage and Salary Administration* (New York: American Management Association, 1950), p. 12.

[7] Jay L. Otis, and Richard H. Leukart, *Job Evaluation, A Basis for Sound Wage Administration* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1948), p. 19.

[8] Edward N. Hay, "The Application of Weber's Law to Job Evaluation Estimates," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 34, No. 2, April, 1950, p. 102.

[9] *Loc. cit.*

[10] P. E. Vernon, "The Assessment of Psychological Qualities by Verbal Methods," *Industrial Health Research Board*, Report No. 83, London, 1938, p. 45.

[11] Weber's Law says that a discriminable difference between two physical stimuli bears a constant ratio to the level of magnitude of the stimuli themselves.

[12] William D. Turner, "Some Precautions in the Use of the Per Cent Method of Job Evaluation, "*Journal of Applied Psychology*," Vol. 33, No. 6, December, 1949, p. 551.

defined in terms of job differentials . . . agreed upon by management, workers, and their representatives.[13]

Pay differentials, like job worth, can never be measured by established scientific quantitative methods.

Use of Job Evaluation Plans in Public Service

ONE OF the fundamental precepts of the scientific method is that the problem determines the method. The motivating belief behind this report is that it would be a grievous error for any public jurisdiction to adopt a ready-made job evaluation plan without an adequate examination of its particular needs. Jobs can only be relatively evaluated and jobs "are relatively evaluated by factors that represent differentiating characteristics between them. . . . A system appropriate for evaluating production jobs is seldom appropriate for evaluating clerical jobs, or managerial jobs, or technical jobs. Different types of jobs are differentiated by different variables and should be evaluated by the use of appropriate factors."[14]

From the writer's experience in pay work, it can be reported that he never felt at ease in using job evaluation plans as an accurate measure of job worth. This is not only because of the fundamental limitations and weaknesses of such plans which have been outlined above, but also as a matter of approach. It has become a fundamental axiom of psychology that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. Viteles points out that

> numerical addition of test scores or of ratings cannot give a single figure which is in any sense descriptive of the personality of the individual examined or rated. In the same sense, points or dollars added together, representing a weighting of highly intangible factors, probably do not give as valid a measure of the position of the job on a scale as does an evaluation of the whole job . . . traits or activities undergo a change in character when these enter into combination with other traits or activities . . . the entire configuration of the activity affects the nature of the detailed activity.[15]

It is perhaps more than coincidental that approximately ten years later a trade unionist can come to almost the identical conclusion. Gomberg has written that job evaluation "does not determine what a job is worth, it determines a limited concept of job content."[16] The validity of any factor, point, or similar atomistic approach to any job which disregards the dynamics of job requirements is certainly open to question.

Job evaluation plans have proved their value to private industry as a means of providing a basis for agreement between labor and management. But it certainly does not follow that because of this they are effective instruments for measuring job worth which should be adopted wholesale by public jurisdictions. Some sage observers have put it this way:

> basic evaluations must still rest on certain judgments of intangibles, certain arbitrary estimations of value and difficulty. The evaluation of positions is not an exact science. It is an orderly application of system and logic to what is otherwise chaos and confusion. It need not be made to appear precise in order to be defended.[17]

It is only necessary to add that neither should it be made to appear precise in explaining it to employees.

What Are the Bases of Job Evaluation?

IN ORDER to clarify current thinking on job evaluation, it would perhaps be of value to re-examine some of the fundamental concepts and basic assumptions of this subject matter, which is admittedly in the realm of the most complex and most intangible of problem areas.

Least complex of the problems we face are those of logical consistency, for which it is not necessary to make the often painstaking and meticulous search for empiri-

[13] Otis and Leukart, *op. cit.*, pp. 298-302.

[14] J. Stanley Gray, "Custom Made Systems of Job Evaluation," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 34, No. 6, December, 1950, p. 380.

[15] Viteles, *op. cit.*, pp. 171-72.

[16] William Gomberg, "A Trade Unionist Looks at Job Evaluation," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 35, No. 1, February, 1951, p. 7.

[17] William E. Mosher, J. Donald Kingley, and O. Glenn Stahl, *Public Personnel Administration* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950), p. 223.

cal verification. Next are the problems of the empirical truth of theoretical generalizations which may be determined experimentally in physical sciences but which must often remain unresolved in many of the more intangible social sciences. Job evaluation is concerned with the most difficult problem area of all—the problem of values—for which there are no easy, simple, or demonstrable answers.

One of the most important first steps in any attempt at systematic analysis in scientific inquiry is a careful examination of the basic assumptions and fundamental concepts involved. With this in mind, the following is an attempt to state the necessarily basic assumptions of job evaluation:

1. Jobs can only be relatively evaluated.
2. Jobs can be relatively evaluated only by those factors that represent differentiating characteristics between them.
3. Different types of job are differentiated by different variables and should be evaluated by the use of appropriate factors.
4. The evaluation of the function of a job as a whole is more valid than any weighted or unweighted mathematical combination of separately evaluated and highly intangible factors.
5. Job evaluation is valid only to the extent that it is made in relation to the same prevailing rate base.
6. Evaluated pay differentials can never be measured or established by scientific quantitative methods.

Job evaluation can determine whether one job is more or less responsible than another job, but it cannot measure quantitatively how much more or less responsible it is. That will always be, at best, an informed guess and no amount of mathematical manipulation of separately considered and highly intangible factors can ever be any more valid, or even more precise, than a subjective determination which considers the function of the job as a whole in relation to that of any other job.

In every case there is, at a minimum, a relationship to a prevailing rate bench mark and an administrative salary ceiling (or a minimum recruiting level) and the salary steps in between are those existing in the basic pay plan. The utilization of these steps by a series of classes will always be a matter of arbitrary judgment. The greater need is to make that judgment as informed and cognizant as possible. The emphasis should be on a means of assuring the exercise of considered and informed judgment rather than the illusory and psychologically tenuous ideal of precise measurement (particularly, when it involves an invalid and retrogressive attempt to represent qualitative judgments in the quantitative terms of mathematical symbolism).

A realistic job evaluation plan will also make a provision toward defining the basis for the evaluation. Something is of value only to the degree that it contributes towards an end (which is also subjectively determined and interpreted). If one would achieve consistency and reliability in the evaluation of a commodity, he must first insure a definitive agreement on the objectives or ends towards which that commodity is directed.

Jobs are of value both (1) to the degree they contribute to the ends of an organization, and (2) in relation to the socio-economic processes of supply and demand. It is this perpetual dichotomy which must be continually resolved through the process of pay administration, but before there can be any agreement on or acceptance of the use of any evaluation plan, an agreement must be reached on such basic assumptions as are outlined above. It is only with an understanding of these assumptions that the results of any plan can be properly used or appreciated.

What Kind of Job Evaluation?—A Reply

EDWARD N. HAY

There are many points on which I found myself in agreement with Mr. Lutz, the author of the preceding article. Perhaps it would be convenient to list them as background for discussion of other points on which our views differ.

1. The fact that factory and office jobs have been peculiarly susceptible to quantitative measurement gives the mechanical and mathematical techniques an impression of scientific precision which is misleading.

To the extent that plans claim "scientific" precision they are certainly misleading. No one has ever made such a claim.

2. Job evaluation can in no way replace the judgment which must be exercised in the administration of a public pay plan.

Quite so; the two things are separate as everyone knows. One is job evaluation and the other is merit rating, plus daily administration of the whole pay plan.

3. The arbitrary judgment used in determining the number of factors and the points to be allowed imposes artificial limitations upon the exercise of judgment.

Many people have said so all along. This criticism, however, applies exclusively to "point" plans, since job comparison plans do not employ factors but rather, compare "whole" jobs; do not "assign" points but derive them from the job comparisons.

4. Job evaluation plans have no objective basis for determining the validity of their results.

Nobody that I know ever said they did.

5. The validity of any factor, point, or similar atomistic approach to any job which disregards the dynamics of job requirements is certainly open to question.

I agree, and this is the very essence of most job comparison plans. We compare whole jobs in respect to the three basic things required: knowledge, problem solving, and accountability for results. It is point plans that are subject to the author's criticism; one which has been voiced many times over the years.

6. No amount of mathematical manipulation of separately considered and highly intangible factors can ever be any more valid, or even more precise, than a subjective determination which considers the function of the job as a whole in relation to that of any other job.

The author says:

Jobs can only be relatively evaluated and jobs are relatively evaluated by factors that represent differentiating characteristics between them.

This comment of the author's is the very essence of job comparison methods. However, it is quite apparent that he does not understand job comparison evaluation, since he lumps his criticisms as applying equally to all methods which employ points. The fundamental difference between job comparison methods—such as "factor comparison," "the per cent method," and "the profile method"—and the so-called "point methods" is something which has escaped most observers, particularly those whose experience has been limited. This difference is so great that I am going to devote the major part of this reply to a discussion of the job comparison methods with which I am familiar.

At one point the author says,

From the writer's experience in pay work, it can be reported that he never felt at ease in using job evaluation plans as an accurate measure of job worth.

To this I can only comment in all sincerity that it is quite apparent from the author's paper that his experience is limited, which is suggested by the fact that the article is a seminar report in his work

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in business administration at Yale University. He would be expected, therefore, to lean rather more heavily on his readings than on practical experience.

The author says,

> The evaluation of positions is not an exact science. It is an orderly application of system and logic. . . . It need not be made to appear precise in order to be defended . . . neither should it be made to appear precise in explaining it to employees.

The author's position here is unassailable. However, I am not aware that anybody has claimed that job evaluation is an exact science, or any "science" at all. Having had many years' experience in explaining job comparison plans to rank and file as well as to high level employees, it has been amply borne in upon me that no exaggeration of any kind is going to carry conviction. At this point, as in some other spots, the author has resorted to the old expedient of erecting straw men in order to knock them down.

At the end of his article, the author lays down the following basic assumptions of job evaluation:

> 1. Jobs can only be relatively evaluated.
> 2. Jobs can be relatively evaluated only by those factors that represent differentiating characteristics between them.
> 3. Different types of jobs are differentiated by different variables and should be evaluated by the use of appropriate factors.
> 4. The evaluation of the function of a job as a whole is more valid than any weighted or unweighted mathematical combination of separately evaluated and highly intangible factors.
> 5. Job evaluation is valid only to the extent that it is made in relation to the same prevailing rate base.
> 6. Evaluated pay differentials can never be measured or established by scientific quantitative methods.

As to these, there can be no quarrel with number 1 since job comparison methods are based on the assumption that the evaluation is entirely relative and cannot be made absolute by referring to an external, subjective scale. Number 2 is easy to accept because it is self-evident that nothing can be measured except in terms of some unit which represents a differentiating characteristic.

Basic assumption number 3 asserts an impossible situation. If different kinds of jobs are to be evaluated, one job will be evaluated in terms of elements a, b, and c and another job in terms of elements d, e, and f. There is simply no basis for comparison at all. Job comparison methods, as I have used them, avoid this dilemma by always using the same job aspects no matter what kind of job is being evaluated. I have deliberately used the word "aspect" instead of the word "factor." I have already registered my agreement with the author's contention that it is the job as a whole which can be evaluated soundly rather than some specialized factor of that job. We evaluate the "whole" job rather than some piece of the job. In doing so, however, we compare the jobs from different aspects. To be specific, we compare two jobs from the standpoint of the amount of knowledge required for acceptable performance. You don't have to break this down into specific kinds of knowledge. We only compare two jobs to see whether the aggregate of knowledge in one is greater than the aggregate in another. (Please don't say that this can't be done, because we have been doing it for twenty years.) Again, we compare two jobs on the basis of the accountability for results. This we can determine on the basis of the extent of the area for which each job is responsible and secondly on the basis of the freedom to take independent action which is a characteristic of each of the two jobs. These things are common to all jobs. Similarly, we compare the amount of problem solving activity in the two jobs. This is done in terms of the number and relative complexity of the problems that have to be solved. This comparison is not difficult to make and requires no further detailed breakdown.

Assumption 4 is sound. The implied criticism in the wording is directed against the "atomistic," so-called point plans and is not applicable to job comparison methods.

The author's meaning in assumptions 5 and 6 is not clear so that I have no comments on them.

Now, HAVING dealt with the points of

agreement between the author and myself —with a few side excursions—let me point out that one difficulty I encounter with his article is that he does not distinguish between the "atomistic" or point plans and job comparison plans. He lumps them together as being one and the same thing because of the fact that they both employ points. He does not recognize that they use them in different ways. I will deal with the difference shortly.

The fact that the author does not distinguish between the "atomistic" or point plans and the job comparison plans indicates that he does not understand the latter. This is not surprising because it has some elusive aspects that seem to be difficult for most people to grasp. Most writers of the various textbooks on job evaluation have written in a way that indicates that they, too, do not understand job comparison plans. Unfortunately, most readers have not taken the trouble to distinguish between at least three different job comparison methods. The first of these is *factor comparison.* The characteristics of this method are two:

1. Jobs are evaluated by direct comparison with one another.
2. Factor point values are found by the process of breaking up the established salary or wage rates across the factors employed in evaluation.

The next advance over this method was to eliminate the basing of point values on going rates. *The per cent method* had a short life but was effective in doing this. Two sets of judgments are formed:

1. Jobs are evaluated by direct comparison with one another.
2. The three factors in a job are compared with one another and their relationships are expressed as percentages.

The method has its weakness because percentages are a little difficult to see. However, "equal appearing intervals" are used in this method, which is fundamental to good job evaluation through any kind of job comparison.

The third method is *the profile method.* Here, for the first time, a brand new concept is formed—the "profile." Profile is shorthand meaning the relative strength of each of the three aspects of a given job. The profile, then, is always expressed as a percentage for each factor out of the total, such as 80 per cent knowledge, 10 percent problems and 10 percent accountability for results. Here, the problem of percentage relationships is not so difficult because it is quite easy to distinguish profiles between jobs of different nature. Here again, two methods of measurement are used:

1. Comparing job to job by aspects, using equal appearing intervals, the same as in the other two methods.
2. Compare aspect to aspect within the same job, always expressing them as percentage which totals 100 percent.

Much of the author's comments on job comparison evaluation appears to have been made with a limited understanding of the process. Consequently, there is no point in belaboring the arguments pro and con the various points which he has raised.

Let us take a look for the moment at job comparison methods. Although factor comparison and the percent method are in one respect similar to the profile method, they are less satisfactory, for a number of reasons. What is being said here, therefore, is based on the profile method—a detailed description of which may be found in *Personnel,* September, 1951.

It is perfectly useless to argue pro and con the practicability of this method. It has been used scores of times and notably in the evaluation of technical and executive positions at the highest levels in some of America's greatest corporations. (Names upon request.)

Good job evaluation requires separation of the five principal problems which are as follows:

1. *Analyze* and *describe* the job, with no regard to its relative value to any other job or the salary being paid. Emphasis, especially in high level jobs, should be on the prime function of the job rather than giving much space to detailed duties.
2. *Relative job worth* is the fundamental to be kept in mind in evaluation. A great weakness of the "atomistic" plans is

their reference to scales which, although they look objective, are actually highly subjective in that they depend upon words for their existence. They cannot use the useful principle of equal appearing intervals.

3. *Pricing* the jobs is an operation which should be separate from evaluating the relative job importance. How this is done has been amply dealt with in textbooks but it should be kept separate from the job evaluation itself.

4. Periodic *salary surveys* should be made to determine the alignment of the salary or wage structure in comparison with the going rates in the market. In the initial pricing of rate ranges, such resort to salary surveys should be made as may be necessary to inform the organization of its competitive position. Whatever action is taken is a matter of policy.

5. *Merit, or performance.* Individual merit, or performance, is a matter for some form of rating process. This information is normally used to determine the kind of treatment to be given an individual within the rate range for his position. It should and must be kept separate from all other elements of the plan.

The essence of good evaluation is to keep these five elements separate and distinct. Any effort to combine one or more steps will inevitably result in confusion and distortion.

THE FOLLOWING principles exemplify, in my judgment, the soundest type of job evaluation or job measurement:

1. The soundest basis for job evaluation is comparison—to determine that a job is more or less difficult than another job in respect to the three cardinal aspects of job performance, *knowledge* required to do the job, *problems* to be solved (or creative requirements) and *accountability* for results, measured by the most likely cost of failure to perform the job satisfactorily. Let it be emphasized that these are three aspects of the whole job, not by any means "factors" of the job.

2. *Group judgment* is essential for the most satisfactory evaluation results. This is true for a number of reasons. "Several heads are better than one" is an old saying. The judgment of several people, properly handled, is usually better than the judgment of any one. This is particularly true if one arbitrary or biased individual happens to be in the group. By far the best way to apply group judgment is to have each individual in the group express his judgment privately and separately, on paper. Comparison of the judgments then forms the basis for a discussion of differences in order to reach a final agreement. It is not desirable for untrained people to do this work. It is my experience, particularly in high level evaluation, that the evaluation should be performed by two or three well-trained people. The results then can be laid before the policy group for final criticism and acceptance.

3. Validity of any job evaluation is largely a matter of acceptance. Consequently, the capacity to demonstrate the evaluation results are essential in any plan.

4. While direct job comparison is the best method of evaluation, yet the *Evaluation Guide Chart* developed in recent years by Dale Purves, is very helpful in *explaining* the results to others—particularly to executive groups—and in initiating the evaluations and subsequent slotting. There is no opportunity at this point to explain the evaluation guide chart and there is nothing in print regarding it. Its satisfactory use, however, rests entirely on a more basic method of evaluation, the profile method.

THIS review of job comparison evaluation has been made because of the obvious lack of this information on the part of the author of this paper, and likewise on the part of most authors of books on job evaluation.

There is another side to the author's article which has not been commented on—those points on which there is direct disagreement on my part. He says,

> The first observation that can be made is that there is nothing basically new in the job evaluation plans of private industry. They are an adaptation of the classification approach of job ranking first developed in the public service.

This is news to me. I see no relation between job evalution as used in industry and the classification plans as used in the public service. We do not even use classifications or salary grades in high-level job evaluation. We use rate ranges falling at every point or every few points on the scale. If you wish to object that this implies a seeming accuracy which is not possible, we would retort that the distinctions between grades or classifications which are employed in other methods leave many a doubtful job which either belongs at the top of grade 5 or at the bottom of grade 6—who knows which.

At another point, he says

> Job evaluation can determine whether one job is more or less responsible than another job but it cannot measure quantitatively how much more or less responsible it is.

This is so contrary to common knowledge in industrial job evaluation that it is hardly worth comment. The point which the author seems to be confused about is that he assumes that since 29 is more than 25 that we must mean that the job has to be 29/25ths greater. We are quite aware, those of us who use job comparison methods, that there is "an error of measurement" implicit in all measurement of every subjective nature. This is as true of psychological testing as it is of job evaluation. Anyone working with tests knows that a score of 29 on a certain mental ability test is merely a statement that the chances are 50-50 that the individual's true score is between 27 and 31—who knows where? There is simply no point in saying that jobs cannot be measured quantitatively when industry has been doing it for many many years. It is one of the fair criticisms of the public systems that they do not attempt the possible.

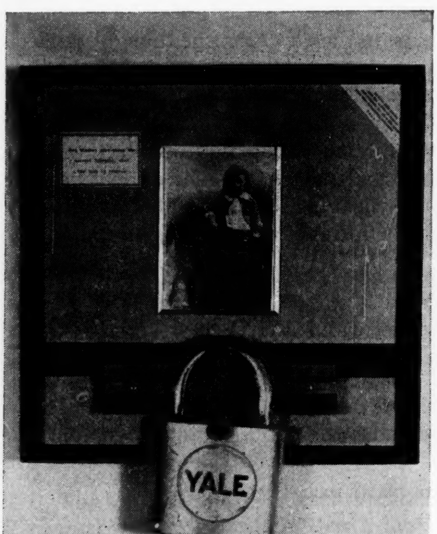
It should be noted that I have had two years intensive experience with the U.S. Civil Service Classification plan, as Deputy Administrator of the Office of Price Administration. I would like to quote a statement made to me at that time by Ismar Baruch, Head of Classification for many years, to the effect that he thought the federal plan could be improved by using points in some way.

Many other matters might have been interesting to comment upon but the author's language has rendered identification of his meaning sometimes difficult and they have not therefore been dealt with.

Strictly a Gadget But, ... WILLIAM G. WAGGONER

If a fellow grins either at, or with you, he is on your side. If he is an employee under your supervision he will work harder for you. If he is a fellow employee he will do what he can to roll the rocks out of your road. How many so-called, well-rounded employee relations programs with all their gismos achieve such sure symbols of a successful program?

The Federal Reclamation Employees Association of Region 2 of the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation, Sacramento, California, operating with this basic psychology, came up with an employee relations gadget that did the job. One of their members built two little bulletin boards like the one shown in the photograph. They located them in the two most prominent hallways. They began asking employees for old album pictures.



Each week they post a picture of some employee. After a three day suspense period the vital statistics are unlocked.

Yes, sir! You were right??? This is the Regional Supervisor of Operation and Maintenance at age four or five. It has been a few years back but he thinks it was taken a day or two before he was permanently de-curled and pants'd.

The gentleman, as is, is well over 60 years of age, dignified and balding.

If you want to begin such a feature in your own organization, here's a tip. Concentrate your first efforts on one male and one female employee. The higher up the local ladder they are, the better. These first pictures will set the pace for this interesting little feature. Try to open up with a picture of a male employee about the time he began to get the first gleam in his eye, perhaps with his hair vaseline loaded, parted down the middle, all dressed up and rarin' to go. Try to get the female employee at the flapper stage. Ideally, the pictures should be at an age when they are not readily recognizable, yet after the vital statistics are unlocked the resemblance can be seen. But, you cannot hold back if baby pictures are offered. A good bottoms-up shot gets a lot of humorous comment.

All album pictures are first copied and enlarged or reduced to a 5 x 7 print so that they will fit in the holder frame on the little bulletin board. It doesn't hurt to let contributing employees know they will get back two extra prints of their album picture. Many times they are highly prized album pictures borrowed from a fond mother living at some distant place. The easiest way to lose your scalp is to misplace one of these original album pictures.

You learn some funny things about people in making your collections. The dignified, reserved ones you are most hesitant to ask are the most willing contributors. On the other hand, the personality boys are inclined to hold back until they can test weather conditions.

Employees stop for a peek at the picture of the week on their way to and from work or lunch and pass on wearing a sympathetic grin. The idea induces a general feeling of friendliness and warmth difficult to get in any other way. It is as impossible to hold a feeling that so and so is a stuffed shirt after seeing him in knee pants as it is to long-puss a friendly smile tossed your way.

PERSONNEL OPINIONS

● What is the thinking of experienced personnel people on everyday problems of personnel policy and practice? Their views can often provide readers of *Public Personnel Review* with cues to sound, constructive policy-making.

The editors have asked several experienced personnel administrators to discuss the problem of justifying the personnel budget in dollars and cents. Here's what they say.

The Question . . . .

If you were asked to justify in dollars and cents the benefits of your personnel program, what would you say?

The Replies . . . .

EDWIN J. CROCKIN, Assistant Director of Personnel, Commonwealth of Virginia.

One of the greatest handicaps to good public management is the lack of cost-related standards. An inefficient or unproductive business without such standards eventually becomes bankrupt. An inefficient or unproductive public activity without such standards may only become the recipient of larger appropriations. That forward-looking administrators are aware of the need is indicated by the growing and healthy development of self-sustaining service activities. In these, one governmental unit—a print shop, for example—may be required to bid for jobs needed by other units and to compete with other agencies or with pre-determined cost standards. A sound cost accounting system is essential to this type of development.

Unfortunately, as of this time, no suitable cost accounting system is available to public personnel agencies. In the absence of one, statements of savings or accomplishments in terms of dollars and cents have an improbable value. It may be true that, in the few agencies with measurable production output (with dollar value), one can determine dollar losses in certain contingencies. In such agencies we might fairly define the production loss—and its dollar value—from failure to supply a worker or good worker or a potentially good worker or to train a good worker. Even so, the value of recruitment or selection or training (or the phase of the program which would have prevented the separation of the former employee) does not lend itself to dollar and cents valuation.

In the absence of an acceptable cost accounting system for personnel program activities, we cannot justify their benefits in terms of specific dollars and cents. There are, however, two lines of approach which can be fairly taken. First, it is logical that if we pursue certain actions, a money benefit *should* result. If we can select better workers, we should get a better return from them. If we do a good job of training workers, we should have a higher work output and perhaps need fewer workers. If we weed out the failures, our work record should improve. These are reasonable expectations, although we cannot state that a given appointment has saved $X. (Of course, if a training program costs a certain sum, reduction of turnover can be measured in terms of that sum. However, to prove the benefit of one program feature by showing it saves in another program feature seems to be lifting oneself by one's own bootstraps.) Second, we can compare our personnel program with that of a private enterprise whose success or failure is measured in money. If the enterprise proves dollar and cents results from its program, we may assume that such a program should do the same for us.

JOHN D. FOSTER, Personnel Director, The Port of New York Authority.

My immediate reaction when asked to justify in dollars and cents the benefits of a personnel program is that it is not possible to justify a personnel program only in dollars and cents, and that we kid ourselves if we think we can. More important, I think we in the personnel field are the ones who should be emphasizing this fact instead of constantly attempting to demonstrate otherwise. I would like to mention briefly two points related to the question.

1. Many of the policies and activities normally thought of as part of a personnel program have become so commonplace that it would be impossible to eliminate them even if this were thought desirable by the management of an organization. Most of the so-called employee benefits are expected, and when they do not exist, the organization is considered to be behind the times, unless it compen-

sates for the lack in some other way. Run through the important aspects of the personnel program within your own organization and try to decide what could be eliminated. I think in most cases the items which could be eliminated would fall in the category of the frills and are of questionable value at best. In some instances, it would be ridiculous to think of making changes if we wanted to continue to employ able people, or keep those we have. In other instances, there may be some question as to the best methods to be employed, such as centralized recruiting and examining versus departmentalized or some other method. But there can be no question about the function itself. The same is true of wage and salary administration. The only items whose validity we might question are those such as suggestion systems, service awards, and the like.

2. The question itself indicates a conception of personnel administration which is the chief deterrent of good administration. The question indicates that we consider the personnel program, and probably the personnel agency, as something apart from the fundamentals of management. Personnel administration cannot be so considered. It is part of management and is a primary responsibility of management. Raising this question is, in my opinion, like asking how you justify management. There can never be any question about the need of personnel administration any more than there can be a question about the need for management. The only legitimate question about either is how complex does it have to be in order to accomplish the objectives of the enterprise.

H. M. Morrison, Chairman, Civil Service Commission, Province of British Columbia.

If I were asked to justify in dollars and cents the benefits of our personnel programme, I readily would admit that we are spending a larger amount of money on personnel administration at present than at any time in our history. In addition, it would be admitted that on per capita bases—per civil servant enrolled and per wage dollar—the ratio is larger than ever before.

Having done this—having adopted this Dale Carnegie technique—I would move to the counter-attack. My questioner's attention would be drawn to greatly increased civil service staffs, and also to the much greater range of occupations represented in these staffs. Increasing sizes of staffs means increasing problems of organization and management, and increasing range of occupations involves increasing personnel selection problems. I would point out that the degree to which these problems are solved will reflect the measure of efficiency being rendered the public, and that no solution would be eventual chaos. In addition, I think I would dwell for a moment on two other factors which have been quite prominent in the post-war era. One is the great economic activity around us, which results in the need of a co-ordinated and active programme of personnel recruitment and training. The other is the accelerated sense of employee organized strength, generally acknowledged by the community, resulting in the need of expert advice on the Government's handling of its employees—a virtual transition from Olympic pronouncements to roundtable negotiations. Our personnel system, as the liaison between management and employee, plays an important part in making each party more understandable to the other. This results in greater teamwork towards a more effective public service.

Having laid down some of these fundamental but broad principles, I now would be ready to get down to dollars and cents. It would be pointed out, of course, that more effective service performed by well-trained personnel is worth dollars and cents, the amount of which is rather intangible and difficult to assess. For the economy-minded citizen who desires to be convinced in terms of actual money savings we could show him samples of the following:

1. Unit organization and classification surveys where the units' concurrence has been secured in reducing its personnel requirement estimates (without affecting service), not infrequently by large margins.

2. Numerous individual employee classification studies, showing where either the employees' or the departments' estimates have been overgenerous.

3. Staff size including organization and methods surveys which have resulted in actual staff reductions, while not lessening service.

4. Constant wage surveys, which assisted in arriving at advice rendered to the Government before and during its official negotiations with employee associations; particularly advice which counter-balanced the employee associations' presentations and arguments.

5. Training programmes which have reduced staff turnover and thus saved money.

6. Improved selection, placement and personnel counselling, which also reduces staff turnover. Turnover is always costly in respect to training cost, which is lost when an em-

ployee leaves. This loss can often be roughly assessed in dollars.

7. The co-ordinating effect of our centralized personnel agency which tends to prevent duplication and overlapping of services by the various Government departments, and also tends to prevent wasteful inconsistency of administration. Examples of money savings in this regard could be proven.

I feel quite confident that the above, if properly handled and elaborated upon, should provide ample evidence on which a justifiable case could be made. If presented tactfully and skilfully, the questioning citizen (who has every right and duty to question) would depart convinced that more money should be spent on public personnel administration.

Oliver C. Short, Director of Personnel, U. S. Department of Commerce.

Let us establish a few hypotheses and see if the nature of the situation does not answer the question. What is this thing that is called personnel administration?

Whenever two or more persons unite in a common effort and common interest to attain the same objective, administrative management, of which personnel management is an integral part, begins. As the size of the task is increased and the number of persons engaged is multiplied, the administrative management problems likewise multiply, not in an arithmetical ratio but in geometrical progression. It is impossible to establish the ratio of time that the workers must devote to the problems of administrative management, except by an analysis of each separate project with the nature and complexity of the work and the qualifications of the workers. However, the time will come as the organization is enlarged when it becomes necessary to employ more persons for the task at hand than the work itself demands, in order that all of the workers may share the load incident to administrative management or some of them devote more time to problems of administration than they do to the technical performance of the task. When this time arrives, the issue becomes clear that the quality of performance must be sacrificed in order that both the technical work and the administrative processes may be carried on by the same people or else persons hired with special qualifications to do the technical work on the one hand, and on the other, a separate set of workers employed with specific qualifications to carry on the administrative functions.

Present-day organizations—business, commercial, social, religious, and governmental—are set up on the latter basis. This makes it possible to recruit, train, develop, place, and maintain the best qualified persons specifically for the technical work involved, and on the other hand, to recruit, train, develop, place, and maintain persons who are skilled in administrative procedures, even to the fine subdivisions in which administration is recognized to have specialties.

Of course, one of these specialties is personnel administration. The field for recruits is broad, containing persons who have been trained in techniques of human relationships, familiar with best known methods of selection, the laws, rules and regulations governing recruitment, placement, training, and separation. There are also those recruits who have the know-how of organizing effectively for personnel administration and who fit the techniques of personnel administration into the work unit to most effectively support the line organization in the accomplishment of its established purpose. Fundamentally, personnel management exists in every activity upon which people are engaged for a common end. The answer to the question of how personnel management shall be administered is the answer to the question does personnel administration pay.

Should We Remember What Happened to the Horse?

A century ago, 22 percent of physical work was done by humans; 47 percent by animals; and 31 percent by mechanical energy. Today, according to the Twentieth Century Fund, the machine's share has risen about 97 percent and is expected to exceed 98 percent by 1960.

Totemism and Protocol in the American Enterprise System

This is the way it is in offices:

First you start at desks that are
huddled together back to back with
barely squeeze room between them.

Then you work

at desks that

all face the

same way and

are neatly spaced.

And if yours occupies a space by
ITSELF
all know that you must be a
Senior whatever-it-is
till the rare day when you ascend
to the Supervisory or Middle Management level
and get a desk that is

catty-cornered.

(If you never get another promotion, of course, in due time
you will even get
a fence around your
catty-cornered desk.)

But if you are reasonably happy in your choice of adjectives
you may look forward to achieving

AN OFFICE OF YOUR OWN

with your name on the frosted panes that extend to eye level, all above being clear glass; for you will never get a solidly walled-in office until you are in like Flynn and have become a

wheel!

—Ingolf H. E. Otto
University of Kansas City, Kansas City, Mo.

Reprinted from the April, 1953, issue of *The Management Review,* with the permission of The American Management Association.

THE BOOKSHELF

The Older Worker: An Annotated Bibliography

As a new service to readers of *Public Personnel Review,* the editors plan to publish, from time to time, annotated bibliographies on subjects of broad interest to public personnel people. The feature is possible because of the cooperation of the U.S. Civil Service Commission. This bibliography on the older worker was prepared by the staff of the Commission's Library under the direction of Miss Mary Virginia Wenzel, Librarian.

Abrams, Albert J.

Barriers to the employment of older workers. *Annals of the American academy of political and social science,* vol. 279, January 1952, pp. 62-71.

Cultural, economic, and industrial barriers to employment of older workers in modern society, and progress which is being made in surmounting them.

Age discrimination in employment: an FEPC misfit. *Yale law journal,* vol. 61, no. 4, April 1952, pp. 574-584.

Feels that a solution to the problem of eliminating age discrimination must be found by other means than including provisions in FEPC legislation which prohibits such discrimination.

American management association.

Problems of the maturing workforce: a panel session. New York, 1952. pp. 21-43. (Personnel series no. 149)

Contents: Aspects of the retirement picture, by George E. Johnson; The case for flexible retirement, by J. J. Morrow; Anticipating the retirement day, by Wilma Donahue; Maintenance of health in the elderly workforce, by Carl T. Olson.

Bancroft, Gertrude.

Older persons in the labor force. *Annals of the American academy of political and social science,* vol. 279, January 1952, pp. 52-61.

Variables which affect the employment of the older worker, possibilities of part-time employment, wartime experience of older workers, and differences in opportunity for older men and women.

Barkin, Solomon.

Union policies and the older worker. *In Industrial relations research association. The aged and society*. Champaign, Ill., 1950. pp. 75-92.

Union viewpoints regarding management's responsibility for providing employment opportunities for older qualified workers. States union policy regarding seniority, compulsory retirement, job adjustments, transfers, and downgrading of older workers.

Bowers, William H.

An appraisal of worker characteristics as related to age. *Journal of applied psychology,* vol. 36, no. 5, October 1952, pp. 296-300.

Results of detailed appraisal of personnel records of several thousand employees between 18 and 76 in a large organization revealed in which traits of older workers were rated as superior and generally indicated that "arbitrary retirement at 65 or hiring discriminations against employees because of age have little warrant."

Brown, Clarence W. and Edwin E. Ghiselli.

Age of semiskilled workers in relation to abilities and interests. *Personnel psychology,* vol. 2, no. 4, Winter 1949, pp. 497-511.

Results of tests administered to several hundred workers revealed abilities of older workers are comparable in tasks involving neither precision nor complex mental processes, but inferior in tasks involving the abstract and the complex.

Brown, J. Douglas.

The role of industry in relation to the older worker. *In Industrial relations research association. The aged and society.* Champaign, Ill., 1950, pp. 65-74.

Analysis of problems which face management in its responsibility for providing for employee retirement and security, with a section on the problems arising as a result of reemployment of older workers after retirement.

Butler, R. E.

The older employee. *Personnel administration,* vol. 14, no. 2, March 1951, pp. 4-9.

Role of the personnel counselor or employment official in counseling older employees and developing policies most conducive to their effective utilization in industry and government.

Campbell, Jean.

Retirement and employment problems of the older worker. *Monthly labor review,* vol. 73, no. 6, December 1951, pp. 695-699.

Based on facts and opinions presented at Second International Gerontological Congress, September 1951. Cites the need for additional employment opportunities for older workers to supplement social insurance and pension payments and also indicates that employment is only one answer to the problem of economic security.

Carlson, A. J.

The older worker. *Journal of the American medical association,* vol. 121, no. 11, March 13, 1943, pp. 806-810.

Medical viewpoint on the inevitable aging changes of man which affect his ability to work. The author feels, however, that older employees who can still perform useful work in some capacity should not be relegated to idleness.

Chamber of Commerce of the United States.

Employment of physically handicapped and older workers; summary of a survey of company practices conducted jointly by the Chamber of commerce of the United States and the National association of manufacturers among member companies. Washington, n.d. 27 pp.

Report is of particular interest in that it gives specific reasons why certain companies cannot or do not hire handicapped and older workers, and also presents the difficulties experienced with handicapped and older workers on the job. Statements from companies which do hire older workers are also presented.

Clague, Ewan.

After 45—how about a job? *Survey,* vol. 86, no. 4, April 1950, pp. 173-176.

Problems faced by workers in the earlier period of old age in making the transition from occupations for which they have been trained and which are no longer available or suited to them. Suggests more research on productivity and working capacity in the older years, and increased attention to retraining and placement.

Clague, Ewan.

Older workers: industrial aspects of aging. *Monthly labor review,* vol. 70, no. 5, May 1950, pp. 506-509.

Lack of financial security and increased life expectancy create the necessity for devising ways of providing gainful employment for the aging. Surveys problems and approaches.

Clague, Ewan.

The social and economic problems of employment of older workers. *In Wilma Donahue and Clark Tibbitts, eds. Planning the older years.* Ann Arbor, University of Michigan press, 1950, pp. 191-204.

Emphasizes the need for fact-finding and more specific information in order to make adequate plans for re-employment and proper placement of older workers.

Convery, John M.

How industry looks at the employment of older people. *In Wilma Donahue and Clark Tibbitts, eds. Planning the older years.* Ann Arbor, University of Michigan press, 1950, pp. 205-223.

Surveys what industry has done and is doing presently to provide adequate employment opportunities for the older worker and to avoid discrimination in hiring practices. Gives excerpts from answers by representative concerns.

Cousins, M. S.

Some problems of industry and the older worker. *Journal of the Institute of personnel management,* vol. 34, no. 320, June 1952, pp. 77-83.

States that British industry must face the problem of an increasingly older labor force and that automatic retirement at 60 or 65 cannot be justified. Shows what was done during the war emergency and adjustments which can be made to extend the time of employment of older employees.

Fox, Harland.

Utilization of older manpower. *Harvard business review,* vol. 29, no. 6, November 1951, pp. 40-54.

Information based on data collected by Industrial relations center, University of Minnesota. Analyzes the overall dimensions and facets of the problem, the extent of utilization by industry of the older worker, and attitudes of older workers toward work vs. retirement. Suggests some general guides for action.

Giberson, Lydia G.

The older worker. *In Human behaviour and its relation to industry; a series of lectures delivered at McGill university,* Montreal, Jan. 12-March 28, 1944. Montreal, McGill university, 1944, pp. 77-87.

Presents simply and briefly the present status of the older worker in industry, and a psychological analysis of characteristics common to older workers, with some precautions and objectives.

Gilbert, Conrad M.

We over forty. Philadelphia, Westbrook publishing company, inc., 1948. 126 pp.

State-by-state summary of provisions relating to or prohibiting age discrimination in state civil service laws: pp. 66-84.

Goldfield, Edwin D. and Herman P. Miller.

How many older workers? *American economic security,* vol. 9, no. 5, October-November 1952, pp. 22-27.

Reexamination of facts relating to the number of potentially employable older workers as well as of current assumptions regarding their desire to continue working.

Gray, John S.

Psychology in industry. 1st ed. New York, McGraw-Hill book company, inc., 1952. pp. 295-314.

General psychological information on characteristics associated with aging and the effects of age on such facts as labor turnover, attitudes, accident rate, job performance, and job satisfaction.

Hewitt, Edwin Shields and associates.

Company practices regarding older workers and retirement. Libertyville, Ill., 1952. 34 pp.

Survey of 657 companies employing approximately 2.5 million employees. Chart II shows practice in regard to retention of older workers, reassignment to lighter or less demanding work, and adjustment of compensation.

Himler, Leonard E.

Personality disorders of older employees. *Industrial medicine and surgery,* vol. 18, no. 6, June 1949, pp. 248-252.

States that at present there is little precise knowledge concerning significant differences between older and younger workers, but that there are great individual differences in the aged. Presents the personality assets of older employees, along with possible personality disorders, and problems which they create in an industrial environment.

Illinois University. Institute of labor and industrial relations.

Who's too old to work? Urbana, 1950. 28 pp. (Bulletin series, vol. 4, no. 3)

Factual survey of the problem of the older worker from the point of view of the worker as well as of industry. Suggests specific things which industry, unions, communities and government can do to help.

Kaplan, Oscar J.

The mental health of older workers. *In Industrial relations research association. The aged and society.* Champaign, Ill., 1950. pp. 204-218.

Guides for personnel and industrial relations departments in maintenance of employee efficiency and proper assignment of older workers. Section on personnel procedures as related to mental health and components of an adequate mental health program for the older worker.

Klumpp, Theodore G.

Employment of the older worker. *Public health reports,* vol. 68, no. 1, January 1953, pp. 20-22.

Emphasizes that individual selection for retirement is just as important as selection in the hiring process, and that there should be some means of determining which people are capable at 65 and 70.

Kossoris, Max D.

Absenteeism and injury experience of older workers. *Monthly labor review,* vol. 67, no. 1, July 1948, pp. 16-19.

Detailed study of the work records of 17,800 workers in a variety of manufacturing industries indicated that "the only disadvantage of older workers . . . is that their disabilities last longer once they are injured. But they are, on the whole, less likely to be absent as frequently and perhaps less likely to be injured than younger workers."

Lawton, George.

Constructive proposal regarding older workers. *Personnel journal,* vol. 18, no. 8, February 1940, pp. 300-308.

Suggests a Job Re-Allocation Department for industrial plants and business firms whose function it would be to deal with the varied problems growing out of the aging of their employees. Outlines responsibilities of such a department.

Lindberg, B. A.

The elderly worker: a study of employment and retirement problems. *In American management association. Operating problems of personnel administration.* New York, 1952. 144 pp. (Personnel series no. 144)

Summary of findings of a research project sponsored by the Harvard Business School. Among the significant findings were a pronounced desire on the part of elderly persons to work, either full or part-time, and the fact that adjustment and ability in old age depend upon health and environment to a great extent.

McConnell, John W.

The utilization of older workers; preserving social and economic values. *Personnel,* vol. 29, no. 4, January 1953, pp. 314-321.

Offers six common assumptions about the older worker and his relation to our economic system, and then examines each in the light of recent findings and known facts. Concludes that the problem must be solved on a more individual basis, and that employment is only one approach to the problem of adjustment in old age.

Marrow, Alfred J. and John R. P. French, Jr.

Changing a stereotype in industry. *Personnel,* vol. 22, no. 5, March 1946, pp. 305-308.

Demonstrates how fixed attitudes toward employment of women over 30 in the Harwood manufacturing corporation were changed through group participation and decision.

Mushkin, S. J. and Alan Berman.

Factors influencing trends in employment of the aged. *Social security bulletin,* vol. 10, no. 8, August 1947, pp. 18-23.

Demographic, social, economic, and psychological changes which will affect the number of older workers who continue to be employed, and the type of employment they will have.

National association of manufacturers.

Workers over 40; a survey by the National association of manufacturers of its member companies to determine the status of "workers 40 and over." New York, 1938. 64 pp.

Survey of industrial practice in hiring, discharge, and layoff, comparison of work performance of older and younger employees, and prevalence of retirement plans. Supplement contains specific statements made by representative companies regarding work habits and qualifications of older workers, and company attitudes and practices regarding them.

National conference on aging, 1st, 1951.

Man and his years; an account of the First national conference on aging, sponsored by the Federal security agency. Raleigh, N. C., Health publications institute, inc., 1951. pp. 69-101.

Summary of conference sessions and discussion on the subject of employment, employability, and rehabilitation.

New York (state). Joint legislative committee on problems of the aging.

Age is no barrier. Albany, 1952. 171 pp. (Legislative document (1952) No. 35)

Articles relating specifically to employment policies and problems are: Discrimination in employment of older workers in various countries of the world, by Albert J. Abrams; Community approaches to the employment of older workers, by Charles E. Odell; Next steps in placement of the elderly, by Marguerite H. Coleman; Redesigning jobs in industry for a maturing population, by Solomon Barkin; Rehabilitation of older persons, by G. S. Bohlin; Sheltered work for older persons, by Edward Hochhauser.

New York (state). Joint legislative committee on problems of the aging.

Findings and recommendations. Reprinted from "Never too old," 1949 report. Albany, 1949. 30 pp.

Status of the older worker in New York state, reasons for discrimination in employment, and related problems such as compulsory retirement, pension plans, and need for counseling and placement services.

O'Donnell, Walter G.

The problem of age barriers in personnel selection. *Personnel,* vol. 27, no. 6, May 1951, pp. 461-471.

Evidences of arbitrary discrimination against workers over 45 as revealed in representative help wanted ads, and the need for more research and the development of a more scientific attitude in the interests of both industrial efficiency and the general welfare.

Olson, Carl T.

Problems with the aged in industry. *Industrial medicine and surgery,* vol. 20, no. 5, May 1951, pp. 205-211.

Describes differences and meaning of chronological, anatomical, physiological, pathological and psychological ages, particularly as related to the incidence of chronic disease, frequency of accidents, effect on work competence, and possible human relations problems.

Pollak, Otto.

Discrimination against older worker in industry. *American journal of sociology,* vol. 50, no. 2, September 1944, pp. 99-106.

Analysis of data leads author to conclude that size of problem has been greatly overstated and that some of the reasons advanced for differential treatment of older employees are valid.

Comment on Mr. Pollak's conclusions in *American journal of sociology,* vol. 51, no. 4, January 1946, pp. 322-324; rejoinder by Mr. Pollak, pp. 324-325.

Pollak, Otto.

The older worker in the labor market. *In Industrial relations research association. The aged and society.* Champaign, Ill., 1950. pp. 56-64.

Factors in modern industrial society which affect the worker's opportunity to earn a living and the extent to which age is related to these factors.

Pollak, Otto.

Social adjustment in old age; a research planning report. New York, Social science research council, 1948. pp. 94-115. (Bulletin 59, 1948)

Suggestions for needed and feasible research in the area of social aspects of aging. Suggests such topics as employment opportunities for older people, their employability, their job performance, and job relations.

Raube, S. Avery.

Youth vs. age. National industrial conference board, Management record, vol. 9, no. 10, October 1947, pp. 297-302.

Replies made by companies cooperating in a survey regarding company policies on maximum hiring age, placement policies for older workers who "slow down," and comparison of productivity and attitudes of older and younger workers.

Shock, Nathan W.

Older people and their potentialities for gainful employment. *Journal of gerontology,* vol. 2, no. 2, April 1947, pp. 93-102.

Physiological changes in the aged, arguments for and against their employment, and suggested program for adequate utilization of their abilities and potentialities. Bibliography.

Smith, M. W.

Evidences of potentialities of older workers in a manufacturing company. *Personnel psychology,* vol. 5, no. 1, Spring 1952, pp. 11-18.

In survey of 3660 past employees rated by foremen at the time of their leaving, it was found that older workers were discharged as incompetent less often than the younger, that older workers were less likely to quit because of family situations or dissatisfaction, and that older workers received, proportionately, as many above-average ratings in ability, attendance, and attitude as younger workers.

"In view of such findings, it was concluded that the company might do well to discriminate less against older workers in hiring policy, and try more to hold good older employees, by adjustment of work to their capacities, or job transfer."

Stanton, Jeannette E.

Part-time employment for the older worker. *Journal of applied psychology,* vol. 35, no. 6, pp. 418-421.

An appraisal of the availability for work, labor turnover, and wage increases granted part-time employees in a midwestern department store, with data as to variations shown in age groups under and over 45.

Stryker, Perrin.

When should workers retire? *Fortune,* vol. 46, no. 3, September 1952, pp. 110-112, 156-162.

An analysis of fiction and fact about aging workers, what various companies have done about setting compulsory retirement ages, union demands for either selective retirement or removing all age limits, and gradual approaches to retirement utilized by other companies.

Tibbitts, Clark, Arthur J. Noetzel, Jr. and Charles C. Gibbons.

Employment of the older worker. Kalamazoo, Mich., W. E. Upjohn institute for community research, 1952. 24 pp.

Main issues surrounding the question of employment and employability of older workers, with an additional paper on the experience of employers in the Cleveland area. Bibliography: pp. 19-24.

Tuckman, Jacob and Irving Lorge.

Attitudes toward older workers. *Journal of applied psychology,* vol. 36, no. 3, June 1952, pp. 149-153.

Summary of attitudes toward older workers by graduate students reveals considerable acceptance of erroneous ideas and need for more data to disprove many prejudices and misconceptions.

U. S. Bureau of employment security.

Workers are young longer; a report of the findings and implications of the Employment service studies of older workers in five cities. Washington, n.d. 28 pp., App.

Survey covered work characteristics and abilities of older people, counseling, placement, and testing services needed, and what management, labor, and the community can do to help. Includes survey form used and tabulations of results.

U. S. Bureau of labor statistics.

Employment and economic status of older men and women. Washington, U. S. Govt. print. off., 1952. 58 pp. (Bulletin no. 1092)

Tables and charts showing trends in the labor force as related to age of workers, and job experience of older workers including productivity, absenteeism and injury experience, age limits in hiring, and the role for counseling and placement services.

U. S. Bureau of labor statistics.

Fact book on the employment problems of older workers . . . prepared for the Conference on aging, August 13-15, 1950, Washington, D. C. Washington, 1950. 23 pp.

Statistics and information on trends in population and labor force, industrial and occupational trends, employment experience, and extent and duration of unemployment.

Waggaman, Mary T.

Employment and the older worker. *Monthly labor review,* vol. 62, no. 3, March 1946, pp. 386-396.

Describes a number of groups which are making efforts to assist in placing older workers, discusses special problems relating to older women workers, and offers remedial programs and recommendations.

Welford, A. T. and D. Speakman.

The employability of older people. *In Industrial relations research association. The aged and society.* Champaign, Ill., 1950. pp. 181-203.

Outline of research findings which offer practical information on how best to place, train, and utilize the abilities of older workers.

Willard, J. W.

Employment problems of older workers. *Public affairs,* vol. 11, no. 2, July 1948, pp. 135-140.

Takes each of the usual arguments against retention and hiring of older workers and shows its weaknesses and possible adjustments to the factors cited. Offers extensive educational efforts, research, and careful counseling and placement as methods by which the problem can be met.

BOOK AND PAMPHLET NOTES

PUBLIC PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT. William G. Torpey. D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., New York, 1953. 431 pp. $5.00.

In accordance with the preface, *Public Personnel Management* "deals with personnel administration in the executive branches of all levels of American government—federal, state, and local." It "describes the framework for personnel management, organization, function, objectives, processes, procedures and problems of administration and suggests solutions to such problems." It "aims to explain important aspects of personnel administration in government. . . ." It "is intended as an aid to the administrator, a guide to the student and an interpretation to the citizen."

The volume meets a definite need in the field of public personnel management. In some respects it can serve as a handbook in that it covers a number of subjects in great detail. It should prove valuable as a day-to-day reference for persons interested in personnel work. The extensive detailed treatment in those sections which deal with personnel management operations in the federal government is especially notable. Reduction-in-force, for example (Chapter 10, Separation), is described in great detail. On the other hand, the discussion of state and local aspects of the problem is relatively brief, as is generally true of the discussion of state and local problems in other chapters.

The detailed descriptions of existing personnel management practices in the federal government are excellent but they occupy much of the volume and this may be responsible for what seems to be an omission. Relatively little space is devoted to the discussion of fundamental principles and philosophy of personnel management. Although some basic problems are noted, suggestions are not offered for solution of the problems.

The opening chapter, the "Framework for Public Personnel Management" poses a number of such problems. This leads the reader to expect a fuller discussion, with perhaps an analysis and recommendations or suggestions for solution, but the expectation is not realized in later chapters. One such problem of great concern to persons interested in public personnel management is the fact that "The inability of government to attract, develop and retain a sufficient number of qualified individuals as employees jeopardizes the efforts of government to provide specific service to the people" (page 2). However, neither Chapter 4, "Employment," nor Chapter 10, "Separation" discuss the causes or suggest solutions. Another basic concept introduced in the first chapter (pages 20 and 21) is the importance of human relations in personnel management but there is not sufficient elaboration in later chapters. Such areas as employee development, the determination of manpower needs, job requirements, communication, and employee morale could be covered more adequately.

The material which is included is excellent and reflects the author's wide experience as a practicing personnel manager as well as his experience as a teacher in the field of personnel management. For this very reason, one wishes that in addition to the effective description of existing practices the volume included an analysis of problems with recommendations for solution. Perhaps we may look forward to this in a future volume by Dr. Torpey.—PAUL M. CAMP, Special Assistant on Personnel Administration, *Office of the Surgeon General.*

THE MUNCIPAL YEAR BOOK, 1953. Clarence E. Ridley and Orin F. Nolting, editors. International City Managers' Association, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois, 1953. 602 pp. $10.00.

This is the twentieth edition of a book designed to provide facts and statistics on the activities of the municipalities in the United States. Regular features include data on form of government, salary of councilmen, pay rates for selected city jobs, salaries of municipal officials, changes in city areas, number of city employees and payrolls, personnel organization, working conditions, retirement systems, financial statistics, nonproperty taxes, parking lots, fire and police data, directories of city officials, and model municipal ordinances.

A section included for the first time presents selected economic and social data that serve as a guide in selecting cities for comparative purposes. Some of the other new sections present data on (1) management and financing for more than 300 city and city-county hospitals; (2) individual city statistics on the use of special assessment financing for public improvements; (3) city activity in off-street parking; and (4) data on subdivision regulations for cities over 25,000 population.

THE FOURTH MENTAL MEASUREMENTS YEARBOOK, 1953. Oscar Krisen Buros, editor. The Gryphon Press, 220 Montgomery Street, Highland Park, New Jersey, 1953. 1163 pp. $18.00.

This volume is the seventh in a series of

publications designed to assist test users in education, industry, psychiatry, and psychology to locate and evaluate tests and books on testing. This volume covers the period 1948 through 1951 and supplements, rather than supplants, earlier publications in the series.

The tests and reviews cover the following major categories: (1) Achievement batteries; (2) Character and personality; (3) English; (4) Fine Arts; (5) Foreign Languages; (6) Intelligence; (7) Mathematics; (8) Miscellaneous; (9) Reading; (10) Science; (11) Sensory-Motor; (12) Social Studies; (13) Vocations.

PUT IT PLAINLY. R. G. Ralph. Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, New York, 1952. 166 pp. $2.50.

Here is a practical book, a readable book. It is one which can be more than recommended for the personnel bookshelf; it definitely ought to be there. In the words of the author: "This books deals with factual prose because that is what most ordinary folk have to write. But the virtues of factual prose are the virtues of all writing. Having learned what these virtues are, the reader will see how they shine in our greatest literature, which is imaginative writing. Having learned to express facts, some readers may themselves aspire to imaginative writing; the others, by being better able to appreciate the superb craftsmanship of the great writer, will find new enjoyment in novels, plays, poetry, and essays."

Some chapter titles will give a clue to the book's readability: "Give Me That in Writing or the Difference Between Speech and Prose," "By What Sweet Name? or Notes on Nouns," "Economy Should Be Our Watchword or Adventures with Adjectives," "Suitable Stopping Places or Some Notes on Punctuation."

HOW FEDERAL AGENCIES DEVELOP MANAGEMENT TALENT. Executive Development Programs Staff, U. S. Civil Service Commission, Washington, D. C. 1953.

To date the U. S. Civil Service Commission has prepared and published four reports in this series. They deal with the programs of the Department of Agriculture, the Federal Security Agency, the U. S. Civil Service Commission, and the Department of the Navy. The reports contain brief, factual information on the executive development programs that have been developed and put into operation. The reports, based on material gathered from the agencies, are presented with no attempt at evaluation or critical analysis. Their purpose is to highlight the various approaches used and to stimulate an exchange of ideas and information.

EVALUATING RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT. Irving R. Weschler and Paula Brown, editors. Human Relations Research Group, Institute of Industrial Relations, University of California, Los Angeles, 1953. 104 pp. $1.65.

The annotated proceedings of a conference of research administrators held on the campus of the University of California on May 10, 1952. The discussions were built around a series of questions falling under two major problem headings: (1) The formulation and definition of research and development objectives, and (2) The evaluation of individual and group performance with reference to objectives (ideal performance).

Current Literature

Articles of Interest in the Public Personnel Field

Personnel Administration

STRONG, EARL, "Executives in the Federal Service." *Personnel Administration,* March, 1953.—Aside from a handful of cabinet members and undersecretaries, the management of the federal government falls upon career civil servants. Federal employees in the middle management and top executive grades make up the largest single group of management people in the world. To clarify the need for training and developing these federal government executives, the following information is given on the number of persons in executive positions and the places where they are employed. The number of executives in the middle management level (GS-11, 12, and 13) is 125,674; the number in the executive management level (GS-14, 15, 16, 17, and 18) is 18,392; and the number in the top executive management level (above GS-18) is 376. The middle management group usually comprises younger persons, many of whom will move into top executive positions. Included in these groups are employees in two broad occupational services—the administrative and management series (administrative or service specialties such as personnel administration, general supply, etc.) and the professional and technical series (chemists, economists, psychologists, doctors, lawyers, etc.). The executive departments have approximately 55% of all executives between GS-14 and GS-18 and 50% of all executives above GS-18. The Department of State has the largest percentage for a single department (25.3%) of executives above GS-18. The independent agencies have 43.5% of the executives between GS-14 and GS-18 and 44.2% of the executives above GS-18. The independent agency having the largest percentage of executives above the GS-18 level is the Mutual Security Agency (8.8). Another point to consider is the distribution by area of federal executives in grades of GS-11 and above: 61.2% are in the field, 29.9% are in the Washington, D. C. area, and 8.8% are overseas. Approximately 2,000 replacements a year are made in levels GS-14 and above, and 18,000 replacements a year in levels GS-11 through GS-13. To fulfill this demand, continuous recruitment, development, and replacement of federal executives is needed. (Article contains tables showing number of federal employees in the middle and top management grades, and distribution of federal employees in middle and top management grades by agency and geographic location. Tables based on data as of June 30, 1952.)—*Earl R. Chambers.*

DAMMINGER, H. A., "Completed Staff Work—The Commander's Part." Army Information Digest, January, 1953.—Everyone who has been in the Army for any length of time is familiar with the chart entitled "Completed Staff Work" which hangs conspicuously in many headquarters offices. It tells the staff officer the steps he must follow to turn out completed staff work. But that is only half the story. Completed staff work is a two-way relationship between superior and subordinate. The subordinate does the work, but it is the superior who assigns the work to him. And it is the part played by the Superior—his manner and method of assigning work—that can make completed staff work simple and useful or complex and wasteful. Practically all of us are, during the course of a day, both superiors and subordinates. It is necessary, therefore, to see both sides of the coin at all times. Since there already exists a fine set of principles to guide us in the role subordinate, we need only the companion set of principles to guide us when we are cast in the role of superior. That is the purpose of this article. There are six basic steps to follow: (1) Know the problem. (2) Make one individual responsible for the solution. (3) State the problem clearly, precisely; explain reasons, background; limit the area to be studied. (4) Give from your knowledge and experience in the problem. (5) Set a time limit; or request the assignee to estimate a completion date. (6) Assure your subordinate that you are available for discussion as work progresses. Follow these six basic steps and you will have every reason to expect completed staff work. Remember that the caliber of the completed staff work you receive is in direct ratio to the guidance you give to obtain it. (Principles applicable to staff relationships in the Armed Forces, industry and business alike are set forth in chart form for reference use.)—*Ullmont L. James.*

HUGH M. PEASE, "What Gets Cut?" *Personnel Administration,* March, 1953.—Since staffing ratios are applied to personnel activities to save money, it may be well to look closely at positions which are eliminated to determine whether or not this purpose is served. Personnel staffs, in reducing the abuse of sick leave, selecting better qualified employees, training,

and proper placement, may be earning more than their own keep in terms of savings in operating costs. Getting sufficient staff to create a better than ordinary work force has never been easy. With the present tight ratios, arbitrarily assigned, it is hard even to get the routine work done. It doesn't take a very big cut to wipe out the small margin that spells progress. One way to solve the problem partially is to concentrate on sound management of the personnel staff itself. By studying the time required to do personnel work efficiently, it has been possible to set staffing guides which save enough on routine work to free a little more time for progressive program work. However, progress made through these savings barely scratches the surface of what can be done, and even these savings are difficult in a small agency where there is no room for adjustments. There is a need to relax the arbitrary ratios enough to allow those projects that spell progress to continue, or to seek and use a more selective method of control. A routine program can only mean continuing high costs.—*Daniel M. Kirkhuff.*

HIERONYMOUS, GEORGE H., LEONARD, DOUGLAS, and GRAY, ELDON T.,"Employee Utilization in the Dept. of the Army" 3-part symposium *Personnel Administration,* March, 1953. —There has been growing interest in personnel utilization over the past decade, and it appears that increasingly serious search will be continued for methods and techniques that will result in the most effective use of the highest skills of employees and the development of effective work groups. The Department of the Army probably was typical of all large organizations and came in for close scrutiny from outside as well as earnest internal examination on utilization of its manpower resources. The usual manpower survey, ceiling controls, budgetary limitations, work simplification, training programs, and employee relations activities were engaged in which, without doubt, resulted in enormous manpower savings. Honest effort was made to find ways to go beyond these general manpower saving programs to discover something that was still lacking. By the end of the war, some hypotheses had been formulated or, more precisely, had been more clearly recognized. Any plan for correcting as many of these apparent causes as possible had to assure a fully integrated personnel management program, had to be well coordinated, and balanced to meet the need. The Department gradually made some organizational and program changes to bring into usefulness a plan to meet most of the requirements. Because the whole approach and emphasis was directed toward ultimate best utilization of employees, the plan was called the Employee Utilization Program. The plan was put into effect in 1947 on a voluntary basis. After four or five years, all installations have elected to operate their civilian personnel programs on this pattern. This article contains an evaluation of the programs from the points of view of the Utilization Division in the Office of Civilian Personnel, Department of the Army; from the Civilian Personnel Office, Headquarters, 2nd Army at Fort Meade, Maryland, and from the Civilian Personnel Office in the Army's Utah General Depot, Ogden, Utah. The evaluations have been carefully made and point out what the Army has learned, what they have done and what they are trying to do. (Article cites specific problems, major difficulties and shortcomings, favorable results, and its acceptance by both personnel and operating officials. *Ruth L. Olson.*

Training

JENNINGS, EUGENE E., "Attitude Training vs. Technique Training." *Personnel Journal,* April, 1953.—Foremanship training aimed at understanding human behavior is becoming common in industry today. However, many training programs fail because they stress technique with minimum emphasis placed on attitude. The foreman's need is to understand human behavior, and technique training encourages *manipulating* human behavior more than *understanding* it. Throughout training, every technique should be preceded by consideration of the attitude necessary for its execution. Proper attitude will improve foremen because: training which changes attitudes often leads to self-development; attitude training increases opportunity for improvement, provides more valid appraisal of work situations and allows more ready absorption of knowledge. Technique training without proper attitude training is ineffective because: it does not bring natural results; it promotes inconsistency; it seems more satisfying to act in accordance with a fundamental attitude than to change attitude to conform to performance; it is similar to acting a role whenever a specific situation occurs; and it tends to provide unreliable practices which in times of stress are disregarded and former practices are reverted to. To cope with workers' problems, foremen must know what they are. Understanding is gained through proper attitudes and when accompanied with desirable techniques, improved performance is a result.—*Wendell H. Russell.*

O'DONNELL, WALTER G., "Role-Playing as a Practical Training Technique." *Personnel,* November, 1952.—Despite its sensational debut, role-playing still is skeptically viewed by some personnel administrators. Conversely, many claim too much for it. Role-playing, as a form of dramatics, is as old as recorded history. Its conception as a training technique for development of behavioral skills dates back less than twenty years. It is more than play acting, however. It is both a type of "reality practice" and an application of the "learning by doing" education principle. It also is a laboratory technique for comparing principle and practice in interpersonal behavior. In role-playing trainees spontaneously act out a human relations problem situation guided by a leader who elicits a subsequent clinical evaluation. The leader may either "set the stage" with a preconceived case, or a situation may be selected from participants' day-to-day problems. Either no direction may be given to the group, or certain members may be given instructions on how to react in various situations. The major role-player, who is supposed to control the situation by his social skills, is usually left to his own resources. Different episodes or incidents relating to the same problem situation may be used, but usually a single episode is dramatized repeatedly with rotation in the major role. Role-playing is concerned with improvement of good judgment rather than with teaching glibness in conversation or specific solutions to problems. Evaluation therefore is based on effectiveness in handling the situation with regard to achievement of the organization's objectives, demonstration of acceptable standards of social skill, and constructive approach in solving the problem. Anticipated criticism of this nature encourages participation with relatively little inhibition. Role-playing has been used effectively in military training, psychotherapy and education, as well as in management training in industry. It has many areas of application in human relations, although to be successful it must be used where all levels of management share in responsibility for effective human relations. Uses of role-playing can be classified in many ways, and several objectives may be served in a single session. Although it is not always politic to inform the participants of the purpose for which a problem is being presented, there is strong argument against using role-playing for purposes that might jeopardize its general utilization. In developing a program using this technique, emphasis must be placed on realism, both as a continuous reminder of the practical value of the technique and to maintain group interest. Although the conference leader has the special tasks of setting a tone of realism and seriousness for the group and protecting participants from "losing face" during the discussion, his greatest need is during the selection of subject matter for role-playing and in seeing that the clinical evaluation is constructively directed.—*Carl G. Johnson.*

DOPPELT, JEROME E. and BENNETT, GEORGE K., "Reducing the Cost of Training Satisfactory Workers By Using Tests." *Personnel Psychology,* Spring, 1953.—Whenever a new employee is hired a certain amount of expense goes into training him to achieve an acceptable standard of performance. It is of interest to management to know to what extent the use of tests, which represent an additional over-all expense to the employment process, can effect a savings in the selection of persons to be trained. A reasonably valid test can be used to reduce training costs by eliminating from the training program those persons who are not likely to be successful. If higher test scores are associated with higher performance ratings, it follows that a high cutoff point will be accompanied by fewer poor performance ratings than a low cutoff point. This obviously should reduce the cost of training the average satisfactory employee. A study by a large food store organization in the selection of cashiers graphically demonstrates the reduction in training costs per successful employee that may be achieved by increasing the cutoff point. The Store Personnel Test was given to 248 women accepted as cashiers who were later rated on initiative, adaptability, and performance. The co-efficient between the test scores and performance ratings was .40. The cost of training a cashier was determined at $300 and the testing cost at $2. This information along with the total frequencies for different score intervals on the test, the number of successful employees in these score intervals, and the number of successful employees desired for training provided the basic information for determining reduction of cost of training a successful employee by varying the cutoff point. From this data a graph was prepared using the test score intervals ranging from 21 to 131 on the horizontal axis and the cost per successful employee on the vertical axis. The cost of training a cashier varied from $690 when the cutoff point was 21 to $425 when the cutoff point was 111. Aside from demonstrating that a testing program can be used to reduce training costs, perhaps of special interest is the method used which personnel people may wish to apply to their own data. (Article contains a work table

and graphs which clearly elaborate the method used.)—*John W. Proctor.*

SARGENT, DWIGHT S., "Executive Development Using Job Rotation." *Personnel Journal,* April, 1953.—The Consolidated Edison Company is a combination of utility companies providing services to New York City. Its executive development program uses job rotation for management trainees. The program originated in 1933, at which time it was directed by a committee of department heads who arranged for the interchange of trainees. It was found during this early period that in higher management positions knowledge of the job alone is less important than knowledge of and ability to carry through company policy. The rotation idea established a means both for measuring the trainee's ability to handle broad management problems and for varied work observation. During the wartime personnel shortage, it became apparent that many executives in the organization were nearing retirement age and that logical successors in lower ranks had largely been trained as specialists. Such persons, if promoted to high management positions, would be seriously handicapped. The company therefore set up three training objectives: first, to build up a reserve of broadly experienced employees who could fill key positions; second, to make junior management personnel more effective in any positions they might hold; and third, to develop managerial personnel with an over-all company viewpoint. The program is directed by a senior vice-president and an Executive Development Committee of department heads meeting periodically each year. Names of promising candidates are submitted by department heads for evaluation by the committee. Trainees generally receive assignments for up to five years, during which time they may work in four or five departments. The department head who originally sponsors a protege is responsible for following him through the training period and furnishing needed guidance. Since 1943, 220 persons have participated in the program. "Graduates" are liberally represented at all levels of management. They have been promoted at a ratio of 5 to 1 over nontrainees, and annual increases have been approximately 50 percent greater, though this may be due to original selection. The program also has broken down many interdepartmental barriers to communication and cooperation. An opinion survey of the sponsors showed that 67 to 84 percent would have chosen the same trainees for the program if given the opportunity to do it again. Over 80 percent indicated that they were at least "well satisfied" with the results. Of the "graduates" who returned the questionnaire 91 percent said that they would go through the program again if given the opportunity, and three-quarters were "well satisfied" with the results. Management points to the significant fact that it has approximately 100 men under 50 years of age available to replace some 61 top management people who are expected to retire within the next 10 years. —*Carl G. Johnson.*

Supervision

JORDAN, J. H., "Don't Blame Your Supervisors." *Personnel Journal,* January, 1953.—The trend to put the blame on front-line supervision for job failure or employee mediocrity has resulted in great emphasis on supervisory training programs "designed to make the supervisor more effective in his human relations and production role." The sad and surprising result of considerable time, money, and effort fruitlessly expended to resolve the problem of supervisory training can often be attributed to failure to enlist the support and cooperation of the group which has greatest knowledge of what training supervisors need—the front-line supervisors themselves. Top executives decide to "give our supervisors some training"; personnel and training directors prepare and submit a program; and as a result overworked, tired supervisors are herded into conference rooms and told "you fellows need some training. . . . We'll meet . . . and help you find out what you're doing wrong. . . . Today, . . . we'll show you how to handle the neurotic individual." The comments of these disgruntled supervisors following their training sessions embrace practical suggestions as to methods and subjects for supervisory training which management and training directors should heed. Also, "supervisory acceptance of the program, . . . essential to its success, is never won" and frustrations, aversions to training, and program failures result when supervisors are not consulted; when their suggestions are not sought out and used. "Workers want a voice in determining relationships which affect their well-being." Remember and apply this principle when planning supervisory training programs, or "don't blame your supervisors!"—*Helen Thompson.*

Employee Relations

"8 Ways to Combat Absenteeism." *Management Methods,* March, 1953.—The causes of absenteeism vary so widely that no single cure-all answer will solve the problem. Whatever

the reasons, the costs of absenteeism are such that it is worthwhile to examine some proved methods of alleviating the problem. 1. *Select and Place Workers with Care:* Consider a candidate's temperament and ambition as well as aptitude for the available job. By emphasizing this, and making attendance records a definite factor in advancements, one firm reduced its attendance problem to minor proportions. 2. *Introduce Competition:* Provide an incentive by letting supervisors and employees know how the absenteeism record of their department compares with others. 3. *Provide Air Conditioning.* 4. *Reward Attendance:* Make an employee feel his job is important by recognizing good attendance. Try to make each employee feel, "After all, if the company is willing to reward me for regular attendance, my job *must* be important." 5. *Broaden Training Programs:* In addition to training employees for specialized jobs, give them an overall view of the firm's operation. By doing this, workers will realize they are a part of the business and feel a greater responsibility to their jobs. 6. *Post Reminders:* Posters dealing with absenteeism remind employees that their attendance plays a part in the success of the business. 7. *Provide Facilities for Eating:* One firm slashed absenteeism 62% by installing a company cafeteria. 8. *Analyze the Causes:* In order for management to be in a position to reduce absenteeism, it is important to know *why* as well as *when* an employee was off the job. Record keeping that takes the "why" into consideration will point up problem areas and perhaps provide clues for effective solutions.—*William Veeder.*

Classification

KLINE, EDMUND K., "Personnel Classification in Public Health Laboratories." *American Journal of Public Health,* January, 1953.—Special problems arise in classifying positions in public health laboratories on the basis of job duties, responsibilities, and required knowledges and skills. First, differences in types of laboratories will result in differences in the specific duties of employees. Major types of public health laboratories are: diagnostic and clinical, milk and dairy products; water sewage and industrial wastes; biologic manufacturing; and chemical. Several of these are frequently subdivided. Thus, the diagnostic laboratory may include enteric disease, tuberculosis, and virology laboratories, in addition to the general diagnostic laboratory. A broad functional classification of public health laboratory personnel developed by the American Public Health Association provides for a graded series of responsibilities with the following functions assigned to each level: administrative, research and investigation at high scientific levels; supervisory; performing the most exacting technical procedures without technical supervision; performing routine examinations under general supervision; performing routine examinations only under immediate supervision; assisting in technical work but not responsible for the final steps; working in the service divisions of the laboratory. The required knowledges and skills for laboratory positions are important. Activities of any laboratory will be determined by the scope of the service and will generally embrace several different specialized scientific fields. For example, bacteriology might include general diagnostic, enteric disease, tuberculosis, biologics production, milk, dairy products, water, sewage, industrial wastes, and foods. Scope of service as well as organizational structure of the laboratory will influence the number of scientific fields. Rotation of employees between divisions will require employee knowledge in both fields. Establishment of options within individual classes to differentiate between the specialized knowledges and skills is suggested. Thus, consider two Senior Bacteriologists, one of whom works in the enteric disease division and the other in the tuberculosis division. The general class could be divided into two options. Such options would receive different treatment in selection but the same treatment in all other personnel processes. Great confusion and variation still exists regarding the nomenclature of laboratory positions. For uniformity, the adoption of the system of nomenclature approved by the American Public Health Organization is urged. This system provides for a two-part title, the first part designating level of responsibility and the second part the principal scientific field, e.g. Senior Bacteriologist. For specialized knowledges and skills required within a broad scientific field, a sub-heading such as Bacteriology (diagnostic) is suggested.—*Grace M. Pierson.*

Pay

ROSOW, JEROME, "Executive Compensation in the Federal Government." *Personnel,* March, 1953.—Executive salaries in the federal government lag far behind those in industry, so much so that the successful man in industry earns four times as much as the successful government executive. The altruistic nature of public service being incompatible with high salaries will always account for a differential in

favor of industry but the large differential makes it difficult for government to recruit and maintain competent men from the industrial sphere. Salaries and wages for white-collar workers and blue-collar workers tend to be competitive, but as the levels of responsibility and knowledge increase, the gap between government and industry tends to widen rapidly. An examination of living costs and executive pay indicates that real incomes of career executives have suffered serious reductions. Since 1939, average weekly earnings of manufacturing employees increased approximately 180%. In contrast, the maximum salary for the highest career grade advanced a modest 31%. Congressional action in revising salaries has resulted in maximum increases at the lower levels and minimum amounts at the higher levels. The more obvious weaknesses of the pay structure above entrance level at Grade 13—$8,360 per annum, include: (1) Little facility for granting pay raises. (2) The pay range is very constricted to the point where an executive in Grade 15 ($900 per month) advances $85 a month, an increase of 9%. In industrial concerns using formal salary plans, the average pay spread from minimum to maximum is 35%—four times wider than in the government. (3) Pay increases which accompany promotion are totally inadequate. (4) Executive salaries are squeezed together, pressing layer of responsibility upon layer of responsibility under a low ceiling. (5) Men appointed to high posts from industry must enter at modest salaries and are generally ineligible for any salary advancements.

Incentive compensation in the form of bonuses to top executives is attracting increased attention in industry. They range from a minor percentage of salary to amounts greater than annual salary. On May 31, 1952, *Business Week* shows a selection of 57 corporations (concerning only the president or board chairman in each instance). As an elite group, their average earnings were $188,000. In addition to differences in direct compensation, the government executive is far out-classed by auxiliary benefits and nonfinancial incentives offered the industrial executive. The impact of taxation has resulted in a new trend in executive compensation—toward pensions, deferred compensation plans, stock option and stock purchase plans, and the provisions of special perquisites. The Conference Board study "Compensation and Pensions for Executives" indicates that top federal executives will draw a pension roughly equivalent to that of the lowest 13% of the industrial executives included in the study. Expense accounts and other personnel perquisites for executives are becoming more widespread including membership in clubs, company-owned automobiles, and sometimes airplanes. "Ideally, federal executive positions are posts of high public responsibility and should not be coveted for their financial rewards. While the prevailing practices of business and industry cannot set the actual level at which public pay is fixed, they should point the way in the long run." (Note: The article contains several tables of a statistical nature.)—*Kenneth R. Scobie.*

Public Relations

SIMON, RAYMOND, "Press Relations Often a Personal Function." *Personnel Journal,* March, 1953.—Why should personnel men need to understand the fundamentals of press relations? For the simple reason that you are in the forefront when the press is most interested in news about your organization. Wage disputes, lay offs, and mass hirings are *News.* To handle the press, you must understand the press. You must recognize the fact that your daily newspaper is a business. It deals in news as a commodity. Every personnel man who says to a reporter, "No comment," is actually withholding from the newspaper its raw materials. Just as a manufacturer would look elsewhere if denied its regular supply of materials so the newsman looks elsewhere if you deny him news. Instead of getting first-hand information from you, his only recourse is to secure second-hand information from someone else. All too frequently, of course, this information is completely untrue, or downright misleading. What is news? As far as personnel men are concerned, news can be defined as anything that happens to or affects people; the more people affected, the more newsworthy. Today, you hire two men. Is this news? It is, but only to the two men and their families. Would the paper be interested? No. However, if today you hire 50 to 100 men, that's news which concerns many people. The paper will definitely be interested and will undoubtedly print the story. Timeliness is the lifeblood of news; the more timely a piece of information, the more newsworthy it is. If you hire 200 men today, then *today* is the time to give the information to the paper. Since you're a personnel man, not a reporter or newswriter, all you need to do is to supply the newsman with the information and he'll take care of the writing. What some personnel men fail to realize is that they must be willing to reveal the bad news as well as the good. Rather than attempt to hide it, by all means call in a reporter, give him the

facts, explain them, and rely on his judgment to present the news in as good a light as possible. Treat the reporter squarely and he will be ready to give you a break in the news if you deserve one.—*George R. McDonald.*

Patronage

Finer, S. E., "Patronage and the Public Service: Jeffersonian Democracy and the British Tradition." *Public Administration,* Winter 1952.—In this very significant article, Professor Finer, using the two volumes of Professor Leonard D. White's administrative history (*The Federalists* and *The Jeffersonians.* Macmillan, New York, 1948 and 1951, respectively) as the basis for his American material, presents a comparison of American and British central administration during the period 1789-1830 and their subsequent development. He is concerned primarily with the relationship between patronage (i.e., recruitment of public servants by private recommendation) and efficiency. He sees no reason why a patronage and a spoils system should be synonymous, or why patronage must necessarily produce inefficiency and extravagance. Both countries had a patronage system prior to 1829. The American system was subject to as few abuses as seems ordinarily possible, and was held up as a model of efficiency, while the British system suffered from inefficiency and waste. One is led to suspect, therefore, that the inefficiency and expense of the latter "might have been due to deeper causes than the patronage system," and to wonder what these causes might have been. In both countries the progress of invention and reform brought about an "increasing divorce between politics and administration." The problem of the spoils system seems to have been somewhat uniquely American after 1824; for half a century, beginning in 1829, it held undisputed sway. In Britain, on the other hand, the administration was saved from the spoils system—says the author—"by its very vices" which created a bulwark against rotation in office. "Sinecures and reversions proved a blessing in disguise when they extended, to the minor offices held 'at pleasure,' the notion that *any* place was a freehold and that on its suppression the holder was entitled to compensation for disturbance."—*W. Brooke Graves.*

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